

SOCIAL EDUCATION

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Editor's Page

ON MORAL FORCES IN OUR HISTORY

THE following commentary comes in response to an editorial on "Moral Forces in American History" written by Katherine Smedley of the George School and published in our November issue.

FEE, FIE, FO, FUM—GREMLINS!

NOW that social studies teaching has been on the forward march for some three decades, it is stimulating to hear a voice from the past. To teachers who have striven mightily to master new materials, improved methods, and above all, fuller understanding of our goals, such a call possesses not only the charm of quaintness but also the advantage of revealing the extent of progress achieved to date. Both these virtues invest with interest the editorial, "Moral Forces in American History," by Katherine Smedley, in the November issue of *SOCIAL EDUCATION*.

Is there not something engaging in holding up as objectives, in contrast to our present "primary aim" ("an understanding of the political, social, and economic world in which we live") the goals of "the appreciation of culture, training in moral values, and the inspiring of love of country" which Miss Smedley thinks were "the purposes of the study of history" "in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries"? As an example of these aims, we may recall Parson Weems of the cherry-tree myth. This model of training in moral values and love of country taught honesty by dishonest history, and wasn't that better than the mere truth? As for culture, let us lift a few facts from E. B. Wesley, *Teaching the Social Studies* (p. 64): in the European history text before 1900, "few cultural items were included." In discussing the American history texts of the same period, Wesley refers to the stereotyped formulas of standardized characters, in which, it is unnecessary to add, any resemblance to persons living or dead was purely coincidental. All this leaves the "appreciation of culture" at a level somewhat below zero. Any modern teacher of social studies

can cure that occasional depressed feeling by reading this paragraph and noting how far we have advanced.

And who cannot hear the horns of Elfland faintly blowing in the clarion summons to view with alarm—God save the mark!—"the 'isms'"! What the "isms" are Miss Smedley does not bother to state, but we may judge that she thinks they are pretty bad. Whatever they may be, these frightful "isms" are everywhere. Sometimes their ideas are "openly expounded in the textbooks," brazenly, so to speak. But, if you should not find them there, don't give up. "They are to be found in countless newspapers, magazines, books—in the organs of public opinion over the nation—either openly expressed or"—and here you can see how vicious these unidentified "isms" are—"subtly implied." (If you don't find them there, look under the bed.) In the absence of a definition, what can one conclude but that to Miss Smedley the history of thought since the Crusades is the history of "isms"? Or perhaps she is haunted by gremlins. For observe: "The rapid seepage of this doctrine" of "isms" or gremlins "into the thinking of this country is not only responsible for the lack of passions"—and here I halt to reflect, thinking of the recent Post Office trial of *Esquire* centering on the possibly libidinous effects of the Varga girls—but, to continue: "and of purpose in our national life but may in the end destroy it completely." This sounds like gremlins to me, but the grounds for alarm are exaggerated. If you consult a recent, authoritative treatise by Irwin Shapiro, *The Gremlins of Lieutenant Oggins*, you will find that gremlins are fundamentally decent and opposed to the Axis.

That these gremlins are up-to-date thinkers can be seen from Miss Smedley's attribution to them of the advanced position of Rescellinus (d. 1121 A.D.) and Duns Scotus (d. 1308 A.D.) to wit: Their "materialistic doctrine" [read: "nominalism"] "denies the validity of an inner authority," which calls to mind an inner tube supporting a tire, and on being punctured goes Pfft! Drat those

gremlins. . . . But to go on: it also denies the validity "of absolute moral standards in public and private life." Well now! Didn't I tell you? Like the gremlins of Lt. Oggins, these gremlins oppose the moral standards of Hitler and Hirohito, than which there are none absoluter.¹

Finally, we get a bang-up explanation of why we were able to win the War of Independence. Remember how it went before the studies of the Loyalists, of the dissensions among the Patriots, of the weaknesses of the British side? Here it is: "Our one weapon was the secret of morale," to wit: "a united mind and heart among those who committed themselves to the patriot cause." Who can read this, with its picturesque inaccuracy, without a nostalgic regret that the work of two generations of scholars has rendered it impossible? Alas, that the historical truth is so much more complex than the legends of the past. Yet who would prefer the spurious fabrications of the myth-makers to the constantly revised truths revealed by research? To be specific, who would prefer the legends, such as are offered by Miss Smedley, to the solid results of research an example of which was so trenchantly set forth in the same issue by President Wesley? I think I know the answer.

HARRY J. MARKS

Amherst High School
Amherst, Massachusetts

FURTHER COMMENT

BOTH MISS SMEDLEY and Mr. Marks seem to leave more to be said on the subject of moral values in the American history that we teach. Furthermore the subject has current and continuing importance; it should not be dismissed as being either of merely imaginary or purely historical significance. Nor should the question be considered only in terms of extremes.

On the one hand, Miss Smedley seems not to be altogether dissatisfied with the changes that have come about during recent years in the content of American history courses. She endorses the effort to give young Americans a better understanding of the political, social, and economic world in which they live. She seems to call for a correcting of balance in the present program rather than for abandonment of that program in favor of an earlier pattern.

¹ For those readers who are worried about the attempted infection of modern thinking by the germs of mysticism: Part II of Leonard Woolf: *Quack, Quack* (New York: Harcourt Brace, 1935), entitled "Quack, Quack Among the Intellectuals."

On the other hand, one may doubt that Mr. Marks is altogether content either with history as it is now organized for the schools and with history teaching as it is now carried on, or that he would consign all traditions of patriotism and moral values to the realm of dishonest history, legend, and myth-makers.² Surely attention to patriotism and moral values does not commit us either to Parson Weems' moralizing or to George Bancroft's interpretation of the American Revolution, any more than the inclusion of economic history in our courses commits us to acceptance of materialism or the ethics of all of our most conspicuous tycoons.

ONE need not go back to the eighteenth or nineteenth century to find appreciation of culture, training in moral values, and inspiring with love of country stated as objectives of American education and American history teaching. The Report of the Committee on Social Studies of the NEA Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, published in 1916, after stressing social efficiency and good citizenship as objectives, adds: "High national ideals and an intelligent and genuine loyalty to them should thus be a specific aim of the social studies in American high schools."

Charles A. Beard, in *A Charter for the Social Sciences*, published in 1932, writes in the course of an eloquent discussion of "The Climate of American Ideals":

. . . Social science cannot ignore ethical considerations. . . . Ethics gives to civics a dynamic quality.

If ethical considerations recommend a wide distribution of the benefits of civilization, they likewise enjoin a simplicity and sincerity of living which inevitably run contrary to the habits of luxury and extravagance so widely praised in the United States as indispensable to the good life . . . (p. 73).

To which Beard immediately adds a specific and vigorous condemnation of materialism in American life, and subsequently the positive statement that: "Insofar as social science is truly scientific

² In commenting on this editorial Mr. Marks writes:

"Your comments seem to me a necessary corrective to the generally negative criticism in my rejoinder to Miss Smedley, and I find myself in wholehearted agreement.

"Would you not support, however, 'neutrality' on religious doctrine, as such, distinguished from treatment of the influence of religion in the history of our country? . . .

"As for moral forces, certainly some of them receive consideration: the Abolitionists cannot be dealt with apart from moral issues. Likewise immigration, the meaning of democracy, etc. But I agree, far more must be done to foster a sense of individual responsibility."

it is neutral; as taught in the schools it is and must be ethical; it must make choices and emphasize values with reference to commanding standards" (p. 94). Presently he lists among necessary attitudes to be illustrated and studied:

respect for the rights and opinions of others, zeal for truth about many things large and small, pride in the achievement of individuals, communities, America, and mankind, admiration for heroic and disinterested deeds, faith in the power of men to improve themselves and their surroundings, loyalty to ideals . . . (p. 103).

And the following paragraphs in the *Charter* proceed to discuss patriotism.

The Educational Policies Commission's *Learning the Ways of Democracy*, published in 1940, in addition to advancing a program for "developing among young people an intelligent and active loyalty to American democracy" (p. 461), declares that "Democratic citizenship requires certain qualities of mind and spirit, qualities that may be effectively taught only by those who possess them, understand them, and cherish them" (p. 460).

The National Council's Statement of Wartime Policy, *The Social Studies Mobilize for Victory*, issued only a year ago, stresses the need for attention to democracy, American traditions, individual responsibility and self-discipline, and the "study of men and women whose lives have personified and advanced the democratic tradition."

It seems clear enough that neither the distinguished student of economic factors in the making of the American Constitution and in the development of Jeffersonian democracy nor others who have helped shape the American history courses now taught in the schools have been unaware of the importance of moral forces, or averse to having them stressed in the schools. If such forces have been neglected in practice, that neglect has not had the sanction of our most thoughtful discussions of the purposes of history instruction.

WE MAY question, however, Miss Smedley's sweeping statement that we have overstressed economic interpretation, the desire of Americans for wealth, and the exploitation theme. We have been adding, especially in senior high school, a substantial amount of economic history, but that is something very different from adopting the economic interpretation of history. The writer knows of no textbook used in the schools in which the economic interests of the Fathers of the Constitution are even analyzed, say nothing of overemphasized. Astor, Vander-

bilt, Gould, Fiske, Rockefeller, and Morgan have not been placed alongside Washington, Jefferson, Lincoln, Cleveland, and Wilson as America's heroes. The exploiters have not been praised, or their works held up for admiration.

The movies may have given undue weight to material success, but history teaching has not followed that lead. Popular biographies may have debunked great figures, but school histories have not adopted that attitude. If we no longer, in our high school texts, sacrifice cherry trees in the cause of truth, neither do we erect monuments to mammon from either the dimes or the more significant beneficences of the rich. If the gods of some Americans—it surely is not true of all—are today money, wealth, position, and power, those gods have been erected in spite of, rather than with the aid of, the American history as taught in the schools. As good a case, surely, could be made, at the other extreme, for the charge that history as written and taught in the schools is still naively idealistic and unrealistic, still lagging a generation behind scholarly re-examination of the American Revolution, of the making of the Constitution, of economic forces in politics and society, and of the role of our leaders in successive generations.

BUT what of positive efforts to deal with moral forces, and to achieve the appreciation of culture, the moral values, and the patriotism stressed in the objectives that have been quoted? The record appears to be one of neutrality rather than purposeful, constructive effort.

The public schools are carefully "neutral" on religious doctrine. The neutrality has resulted not only in unwillingness to discuss such doctrine but in the ignoring in history textbooks and classrooms both of religion as a factor in our national history and, largely, of explicit attention even to ethical considerations.

Many of us, moreover, are reticent about discussing the deeply held convictions and strong emotions either of ourselves or of others. We do not intrude, in public discussion, upon the prayers of Washington at Valley Forge or of Lincoln in the White House.

If some of us avoid consideration of moral forces and values because of shallowness or cynicism, others have been conditioned against making a display of gallantry or sacrifices, and are embarrassed at public recognition of what has been held up as a commonly accepted and expected standard of conduct. We often prefer to

appear careless, blasé, or callous even when we are not.

Some of us who teach have been taught to distrust moral judgments, to believe that "insofar as social science is truly scientific it must be neutral"—and then to believe that we should try to be scientific; we share Mr. Marks' distrust of "inner authority" and "absolute moral standards in public and private life." We are suspicious of indoctrination and the regimentation of young minds, and dubious about the lasting influence of patriotism based shallowly on emotionalism. We dislike hypocrisy and are afraid of having hypocrisy imputed to us. We are as skeptical as Mr. Marks about the value in civic education of the spurious fabrications of myth-makers, however well intentioned.

Yet we are concerned when *Learning the Ways of Democracy* reports that American youth is more conscious of its privileges than of its responsibilities in a democracy, and that in failing to teach the story of democracy explicitly we have failed to teach either its meaning or its development. We are concerned too when we are told that in considering the problems of democracy we have too often stressed the pathology of our society and neglected the achievement in which we can take pride; that, for example, we have dealt negatively with propaganda analysis rather than more positively with the formation of public opinion.

Miss Smedley's statement, furthermore, suggests the point that American economic history has been explored earlier by scholars, and has found its way faster into school textbooks, than has the history of many other aspects of our culture. And it is not clear that, as economic, social, and cultural history have been accorded larger space allotments in our increasingly overcrowded texts, sufficient space has been reserved for the great figures in American history, or for consideration of the qualities that made them great.

HERE then are considerations which appear to bear rather directly on the teaching of moral forces in American history. We do not have to throw the story of American economic development out of our textbooks. We do not have to revert to the inadequate account of American history taught years ago. We do not have to introduce denominational dogma, or abstract ethics beyond the maturity of our pupils. We do not have to swing to rigid and "absolute" moral standards. We do not need to over-

look the recently demonstrated ability of Americans to distinguish between the moral values in democracy and the absolutes of Hitler and Hirohito, or the willingness of large numbers of American youth, whom we have recently taught to demonstrate an unmistakable patriotism in time of emergency.

The issue is not whether in history classes we shall try to teach morals, or by direct and conscious effort attempt to promote moral conduct. Such efforts have a place in the schools, but they involve the whole school program—all subjects, all activities of the school—and need to be coordinated with efforts of other community agencies. But the questions of whether moral forces should be dealt with or ignored in teaching American history, and of whether history that ignores such forces can even be true history, may well be considered.

Perhaps, too, we may well check, from time to time, to see whether such objectives as those that have been quoted above, which have been repeatedly stated and widely accepted, are actually being achieved. Perhaps the present time, when we are prosecuting a war to defend our moral values, and when we are planning a peace in which we hope both to secure them for ourselves and extend them to others, is a good moment to consider such questions further.

Certainly moral values are not unrelated to the conflicts which have to be resolved when democracy must be reconciled with war and wartime political organization, and when Americans who have been indoctrinated with humanitarian principles must be taught to kill and destroy ruthlessly. Certainly moral issues are involved when we establish principles for the treatment both of defeated enemy countries and of the lands and peoples who have fallen victim to them. They are again involved when we establish principles for post-war relief, rehabilitation, and international organization, and when we establish policies in regard to post-war education in the Axis nations.

The range of current moral issues is great. None should be resolved independently of our traditions and established convictions, for while moral values change, drastic revolutions are likely to be followed by reaction.

Moral forces in our history need to be studied for the influence they have exerted, for the help they give in enabling us to understand ourselves today, and for the guidance that can be derived as we try to shape the America that is now evolving.

ERLING M. HUNT

Social Security As a Means of Conserving Human Resources

R. Clyde White

SOCIAL security has such a variety of definitions that one is compelled to state his own usage of the term before discussing matters related to it. Congress gave us one definition when it adopted the Social Security Act in 1935. It is used loosely by the general public, including many newspaper writers, to refer to a single service created by the Social Security Act, such as old-age and survivors' insurance or simply old-age assistance. Recently the National Resources Planning Board has proposed that a social-security system should include (1) provision of work for all those able and willing to work, (2) a social-insurance system, (3) a supplementary public-assistance system, and (4) a variety of services necessary to the health, education, and welfare of the population.¹ The scope and implications of this definition have frightened some people who hold somewhat outdated conceptions of private enterprise, but if we are to divorce social security from charity and pauper relief, and emphasize its positive and constructive functions, some such broad definition of social security seems necessary. Therefore, I shall use the broad conception of social security in this discussion.

What is meant by "human resources"? This term refers to the physical, intellectual, and emotional capacity or potential capacity to do productive work and to participate in the general life of the community. A resource is some reserve power or value which may be utilized for the attainment of an end. The ability to work is,

therefore, a resource inherent in human beings. If this resource is not used or is neglected or is destroyed, the sum of human capacities is diminished temporarily or permanently, and the production of material and non-material goods is correspondingly reduced. The conservation of human resources seems to be accomplished by current use of them or by maintenance of their normal potential when not in use. In a fundamental sense a broad social-security program contributes largely to this end.

THE VALUE OF HUMAN CAPITAL

WHAT is the economic value of a human being? The answer to that question will obviously vary in time and in different cultures. A few years ago Dublin and Lotka² attempted to give an approximate answer to it for the United States. They found that the answer had to be made in terms of the maximum annual income which an individual would earn during his lifetime. A number of illustrations were given, but we shall use the one which estimated the economic value of a man who at his maximum earning capacity would earn \$2500 in some year of his life. First, they had to estimate the cost of bringing this man to his eighteenth birthday, when it was presumed he would get his first regular job. This had to take account of cost of being born, of food, clothing, shelter, education, health, recreation, and insurance, and of a few miscellaneous items. No money value of the mother's services in the home could be determined, though it was recognized that this service was costly. The net cost of bringing such a boy to his eighteenth birthday seems to be about \$9180. The family had invested that amount or more in this young man. But their investment was valuable. In fact, the present worth of the gross earnings of this young man was \$41,078. If the present worth of his future cost of living is deducted, Dublin and Lotka found that his net economic value at age eighteen was \$28,644.

¹ National Resources Planning Board, *Security, Work, and Relief Policies* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942), pp. 1-4.

Americans are valuable, and their value needs to be protected and conserved. This thesis and its implications for social policy were developed by a professor of social-service administration at the University of Chicago at the Third Annual Conference for Teachers of the Social Sciences held at the University of Chicago last July.

² Louis I. Dublin and Alfred J. Lotka, *The Money Value of a Man* (New York: Ronald Press, 1930).

That is his estimated value to society. If he had died on his eighteenth birthday or had become permanently and totally disabled, society would have lost that much potential wealth.³

Various attempts have been made to compare the capital value of the labor of the country and the capital value of wealth. During the 1920's the private material wealth of the country was believed to be about \$321 billion. Exact measurement is impossible. Perhaps it would be \$350 billion to \$400 billion today. In 1942 the "earned income" of the country was about \$92 billion. That is about one-fourth the value of other wealth. Hence, in four years the value of human labor would equal the national wealth expressed in the usual terms. For an earlier date Huebner proposed to consider that part of the national income which is attributable to "current personal earning capacity" as interest on the total human capital. He suggested 5 percent as a fair interest rate to assume, but since 1927, when he made his estimate, interest rates have declined, so let us suppose that 4 percent is a reasonable average rate. Then in 1942 the labor income of about \$92 billion would equal 4 percent of the capital value of human labor. Multiplied by 25 we obtain an estimate of \$2300 billion as the capitalized value of human labor. If the higher figure for the value of national wealth, using the conventional concept, is used, the capitalized value of labor is about six times the value of national wealth.⁴

MANPOWER

SINCE the beginning of the present war, the public has learned a new term, "manpower." A similar term had been used in other countries, notably Germany, for many years, but apparently the significance of manpower had not been appreciated in this country. From time immemorial economists have talked about land, labor, and capital, but their interest was much more centered upon capital than upon manpower. Now that we have taken about 10,000,000 men and women into the armed services and have drawn them from the labor force of the country, we suddenly discover that machines do not run without men, that in fact they are useless protuberances on the landscape.

The government wanted high school boys and girls to volunteer for farm work last summer,

and many schools have rearranged the curriculum so that older students can carry part-time or full-time work in essential industries while they go to school. Many hundreds of thousands of persons past sixty-five years of age have returned to jobs which they and their employers find they can do as well as younger persons. Many thousands of old people who were trying to survive on old-age assistance or old-age insurance have found jobs in industry and other fields during the last year. Such people in the 1930's were considered outside the labor market—they did not constitute a part of manpower. The aim was to eliminate every possible person from the labor market so that the younger and able-bodied could get jobs. Now we have learned that high production demands all available manpower for successful prosecution of the war. More than half of our current production is going into instruments of war, but perhaps we have learned that high per capita production in peacetime would increase the national standard of living. Possibly we shall readjust our capitalist economy in such a way that work will be provided for all who can work and want to work or who might be rehabilitated for employment.

We have discovered new sources of manpower. They are found in women, relatively old people, and relatively young people. Perhaps we shall discover that it is economically desirable to have a national organization which conserves manpower under any and all circumstances. It is almost impossible to define and enumerate the "unemployed." An individual who has retired from the labor market in a severe depression may become a part of the labor force in times of great labor requirements. Those old workers past forty-five years of age about whom we heard so much in the 1930's are now found to possess resources of wisdom and skill which make them especially valuable to the nation. A defeatist attitude about employment has changed to fear lest we find ourselves with a national shortage of manpower after all possible resources have been exploited. But the important fact is that when people work, they create material wealth and consumer goods which add to the average standard of living. From the viewpoint of producing the elements of the standard of living, it makes little difference why an individual or a million individuals perform no useful work. The fact that they do not is the significant thing.

Unemployment because of a lack of jobs is unmitigated waste of the most valuable capital asset the nation has. Not only does the nation

³ *Ibid.*, chaps. III and IV.

⁴ See Solomon S. Huebner, *The Economics of Life Insurance* (New York: Appleton, 1927), pp. 22-24, for a discussion of this problem.

lose the present value of unused working capacity and suffer a decline in the standard of living, but in the event of prolonged unemployment the mental and physical skills of the worker deteriorate. They may or may not deteriorate permanently, but after a long period of idleness the neuro-muscular co-ordination has been partially lost and must be restored if the individual is to do a normal day's work. Therefore, we are concerned not only with the loss of a day's work but with reduced efficiency which may add up to many lost days in productivity after the individual returns to work. The fear of prolonged unemployment, the humiliation resulting from the necessity of accepting relief, and undernourishment all destroy human capital.

BOTH short-term and long-term illness waste labor. Several million individuals each day of the year are incapacitated for their usual activities, whether they be housework, remunerative employment, or school attendance, because of illness. If an average of one additional day of incapacity is added to each of these cases, we lose many times more man-days of work than is caused by all the strikes, about which we get excited so frequently. We take the loss of work due to illness as a matter of course, something which God must have ordained and about which we can do nothing! Industrial and other accidents and occupational diseases result in the same kind of reduced labor supply. In popular parlance, these things just happen. But they waste human capital, just as a fire wastes material wealth or neglected machinery rusts away.

Out of 100,000 children born, some 12,000 will die before the eighteenth birthday. Dublin and Lotka estimated that the average cost chargeable for such a premature death is \$211 which must be added to the cost of rearing a boy to age eighteen. Since about 88,000 children born reach the eighteenth birthday, we can multiply that figure by \$211 and find that loss by death of 12,000 children amounted to about \$18.6 million. But any death before the individual is really superannuated for employment is premature. So we have to think of a sum many times the size of this one as the capital loss due to premature death. This loss is being suffered every year, not just once in a generation.

Another serious national economic loss arises out of the deprivation of children whose fathers suffer long illness or premature death. They do not have the expected means of healthful living and may have their educational career cut short.

If they have to live off of relief, as several hundred thousands do, they are almost certain to be ill-fed, ill-housed, and ill-clothed. That is a waste of potential manpower.

PREMATURE retirement from the labor market is an important cause of wasted human resources. During the 1920's the young executives in a hurry decided that most men past forty-five years of age were old and could not be profitably employed by industry. This superficial, not to say inhumane, attitude was so exaggerated by the 1930's that the old people themselves began to campaign for huge retirement pensions at age sixty in order to get the older workers out of the labor market. Some of the labor organizations took up the campaign and attempted to get legislation which would bring this about. In many countries, including our own, age sixty-five has been enshrined in the statutes as the dead line for remunerative employment.

But the fact is that a large proportion of persons at age sixty-five are not occupationally superannuated. Many occupations never did require superannuation until the worker dropped in his tracks or became chronically ill. Because of the perfection of machine production, old people in good health are just as capable of operating some machines as young people, and they have a wisdom and neuromuscular skills which, unless they are neurotic trouble-makers, give them additional value as workers. The capital value of the human resources among people past age sixty-five is quite large.

A SOCIAL-SECURITY PROGRAM

THESE factors in the reduction of manpower—unemployment, deterioration of mental and physical skills due to prolonged unemployment, illness, accidents, deprivation of children, premature superannuation, and premature death—call for the creation of a social-security system which will prevent or mitigate their effects. The adoption of such a system, far from being the response to a charitable impulse, is in fact dictated by horse sense with which the opponents of social security believe themselves to be especially endowed.

But those who oppose the conservation of human resources are incorrigible romantics. They do not understand the importance of the human factor in production and in raising the standard of living. Sometimes it is suggested that a labor supply can be created more easily than material capital; that principle seems to derive from

Seneca, who is said to have advised his clients to use up their slaves as rapidly as seemed desirable and get more rather than try to prolong the lives of those already possessed. It takes eighteen years or more to produce a worker, and it costs several thousand dollars to do it. In less than two years we have produced several million dollars worth of new machines for war industry. We can do the same thing when the war is over for the conversion of the nation to peacetime pursuits, and we can keep on doing it to improve the standard of living of the masses of the population. Manpower can be used to the limit of its availability.

That is the basic assumption of the National Resources Planning Board in its report. Therefore, it is simple common sense to keep the available manpower at a maximum. This is the purpose of a social-security program.

One of the means to social security is a public-works program, planned and blue-printed in advance of the need for it. Some public works are under construction at all times, but a public-works reserve can add to the community services in times of slack employment. Genuine employment at regular wage rates not only maintains the standard of living of the workers and preserves the skills they use in private industry, but it supports the purchasing power of the community and prevents additional unemployment. Perhaps work relief is a necessary part of this plan because of its relative flexibility, but lower unit costs and quality of performance are probably favored by regular public works.

A housing program which would include both public and private construction is not ordinarily classified as a public-works project. But however it may be classified, it is one of the most promising methods of providing employment to vast numbers of demobilized war workers and members of the armed forces when this war is over. It is also important in a time of business depression. Probably a fourth of the families of the country cannot pay an economic rent for healthful housing. Some public subsidy through the medium of public housing construction is necessary to prevent this group from being ill-housed and, consequently, suffering loss of working capacity. An amendment to the Federal Housing Act to permit the insurance of construction loans at about 3 percent plus a small service charge would stimulate private construction on a scale never before seen in this country and would tend to reduce the amount of public housing necessary for the lower income group

in the population. Healthful housing is an important part of social security.

SOcial insurance is the most widely used means of providing social security. In one form or another it is in operation in sixty-four countries of the world. The common forms cover accident, invalidity, maternity, old age, sickness, survivors, and unemployment. Eleven countries have all of these forms. Social insurance is distinguished from public assistance in several ways: (1) it is financed by contributions earmarked for the purpose by the worker, the employer, and governmental appropriations, or by contributions from one or two of these three contributors; (2) the funds to pay benefits are always available and do not depend upon the political whims of a legislative body; (3) benefits may be a flat sum to every person who qualifies or a percentage of average wages; and (4) benefits are paid as a matter of right without a means test.

Social insurance which covers the risks of accident, occupational disease, invalidity, maternity, and sickness provides cash benefits to pay family living expenses and medical care to restore the individual to normal working capacity. The cash benefit, if the scale is sufficiently high, guarantees that food, clothing, and shelter will be provided while the worker is not earning his usual income. It serves the same purpose in the case of old age, survivors, and unemployment. The cash benefit is a preventive measure: it assures the family that the necessities of life are forthcoming when the breadwinner is out of work for any reason, and it relieves them of anxiety when earnings are so small that savings for the deprivations of such hazards are impossible. Children in the family are assured of food, clothing, and shelter. Hence, we may say that both cash benefits and medical care are directed toward the prevention of loss of working capacity, the restoration of working capacity, or the development of working capacity. In short, toward the conservation of human resources.

A public-assistance program parallel to the social-insurance system is necessary, because the qualifications for social-insurance benefits cannot always be met by all the insured and, besides, even under the most complete population coverage, as in New Zealand and Russia, some persons are outside the insurance system. Public assistance is given on the basis of need. It includes cash allowances for the usual necessities of life and generally medical care in case of illness. It is more flexible than social insurance

because the only important qualification to receive assistance is need, but for the very reason that it is simple to administer and the criterion of aid is defined as need, it involves a loss of respect on the part of the recipient. Hence, it should be only for meeting emergencies; never the dominant social-security program of the nation. Nevertheless, it makes its small contribution toward the conservation of working capacity.

It may be said that some services which are classified under the broad conception of social security here used are obviously not expected to conserve human resources, because there are none to conserve in the sense that the individual may again be a productive worker. That is a fact. For the most part old-age insurance and assistance have no such aim, because to receive either the individual must have withdrawn from the labor market. Invalidity insurance has in some measure this character, but medical care often restores persons who have been ill for many months or years sufficiently for them to resume some kind of useful work. Hospitals for the insane are usually free to the patient: a large proportion of their patients never recover, but an appreciable number are discharged and return to useful occupations. They do restore some persons to the labor market. Prisons and reform schools have as their main purpose the rehabilitation of the offender. Their purpose is constructive, although many of those discharged do not return to useful pursuits. Nevertheless, these miscellaneous social-security services should not lose sight of their constructive functions.

As for security for the aged, the nation accepts

that as a just reward for past services to society. But even this is related to conservation of manpower, because the worker after middle age begins to worry about what will happen to him when he can no longer work, and worry tends to shorten life. It is the common opinion among private insurance companies that assurance of a life annuity after retirement probably increases longevity; hence, it probably adds a few years to efficient work.

It needs to be emphasized that the provision of social security is of vital importance to the continuance of private enterprise. The cost of these services is sometimes given as an argument against them. That is shortsighted. They are essential to the preservation of private enterprise, and we cannot have the highest possible standard of living without them. By way of summary let me quote a few sentences from the report of the National Resources Planning Board:

... On the basis of full employment and of national income at say one hundred billion dollars, all the proposed services can be provided. It is not the provision of these basic services that would threaten the security and prosperity of the nation, but it is, on the contrary, the failure to develop the purchasing power implied in these services that drags down our national income from time to time and everything with it to a lower level. But operating at half capacity or, as we once did, at a level of \$43,000,000,000 of national income, we cannot provide these services, nor can the national economy be operated effectively. On a high-level income these services are not only possible but are indicated as indispensable, even from a narrow economic point of view. From a broader human democratic point of view these guarantees of minimum security are equally indispensable.*

* *Op. cit.*, p. 4.

Last year some 45 million workers received wages which were recorded in their social security accounts. The pupil who earns wages in a job covered by the law is thus taking part in a program which eventually will underwrite the economic security of the larger part of the Nation. For when a person dies, or retires after he is 65, the record of wages he had received is used as a basis for computing benefits for his survivors or for himself and his family. At the present time some 700,000 persons, young and old, receive monthly benefits based on the contributions and the wages of the worker.

Among these 700,000 individuals are some 200,000 children—varying in age from a few days to 18 years. They receive monthly benefit checks because their fathers had become insured under the old-age and survivors insurance program, and had either died or retired at the age of 65 or later.

The high-school pupil working in covered employment, however, is building up a wage record in his own name, for his own security or for the security of his family when he reaches adulthood. At the same time the pupil should understand that he is taking part in a social enterprise; that he is joining efforts with millions of others against the common enemy—Want (*Education for Victory*, November 1, 1943, p. 16).

Wartime Progress: "Tis An Ill Wind"

Lester A. Kirkendall

TO A thoughtful observer of peace-time and war-time activities some very interesting contrasts are evident. Many a person who labored long and futilely during peace in an effort to accomplish some worthy objective, only to have his efforts disregarded, now finds his program accepted—even acclaimed—as an integral part of the war effort. We are doing many things now, and accepting them readily and wholeheartedly in the name of Mars and Moloch, which hadn't a ghost of a chance of being accepted in the name of peace and humanity.

To many must have come this question: If these reforms can be accomplished in the name of war and destruction, is there any earthly reason why they can't be accomplished in the name of community building and construction?

INDIVIDUAL HEALTH AND REHABILITATION

FIRST, there is a different attitude toward the individual and his personal welfare. Much concern exists in wartime for elimination of remedial defects, and if it is reasonably possible a man now runs a good chance of having these defects corrected. I have several friends who, though physically unfit, have been accepted for military service and their disabilities removed—which is as it should be. Yet these same individuals could have gone through life in our peacetime society engaged in any of the most widely-accepted forms of social-improvement activity without any responsible authority taking steps to correct their disabilities. In peacetime men live and die with hernias; men and women need care and attention, which they never receive, to eyes and teeth; children live with remedial disabilities until not only the disabilities but the psychological factors connected with them become warp

and woof of their souls—and no one has the responsibility for doing anything about it. That is peace!

Today under the pressure of war we are rehabilitating cripples and the physically handicapped and finding significant and worthwhile places for them in society. Which is as it should be. But before the war they often lived as economic and sometimes as social outcasts. That was peace!

Under the impact of war we are now thinking more wholesomely and sharply about the rehabilitation of criminals (and army delinquents), the education of illiterates, and the acceptance of those who have been socially and economically isolated minorities because of racial and religious prejudices. Not all the problems of these people have been met and solved, by a long way, but more people are thinking in the right direction. We are seeking to take those citizens who have run afoul our laws, and who give promise of successful adjustment, and to reinstate them as honorable members of our society. We are concerned that all get a reasonably adequate education. The Negro in particular has been improving his status in terms of employment and social acceptance. Which is as it should be. Yet before war there was too little concern about the social rehabilitation of those convicted of crime; thousands of children got no education or only the most meager education, and no one cared; while, as for Negroes, it was exceedingly difficult for them to make progress as a race. That was peace!

YOUTH AND YOUTH SERVICES

TODAY we are doing a remarkable job of integrating our youth into our national social purpose. Many a youth has found for his own life and his activities a significance and a purpose in war that he has never found before. The world is demanding his services. He cannot complete his education too soon. A good place and rapid advancement is awaiting him. He may be a colonel or a lieutenant commander at thirty. Even high school and elementary-school youth have their social place in the community. Scrap

The destruction and costs of war are all too apparent. But some wartime gains in our social policies are here pointed out and urged as precedents for the future. The author is former head of the division of educational guidance, University of Oklahoma, and now an education specialist in the Venereal Disease Education Institute, Raleigh, North Carolina.

and salvage drives, victory gardens, care of small children, the High School Victory Corps, and a dozen other devices give youth in this time of crisis an unparalleled opportunity to serve, to make important contributions, to realize that sense of significance which comes from knowing that society cannot possibly function without them. Which is as it should be. Yet for years the efforts of forward-looking educators to bring children effectively into the functioning of their schools and communities have met indifference and even open antagonism. During the depression years youth as a group was ignored. We talked of the "lost generation." A young man or woman after prolonging his stay in school as much as possible might graduate, only to tramp the street for weary months looking for work which was never found. As for advancement—well, one should be satisfied with a job. No realist entertained romantic ideas about rapid advancement and the assumption of weighty responsibilities. One should be glad if one made the rent. That was peace!

Today a great deal of emphasis is being put on testing and guidance for the purpose of selecting those individuals who have certain abilities and capacities so that they may be directed into positions best suited to them. It is the army's proud boast¹ that it has worked out a classification system that loses less than one good man in a thousand. It is important to conserve the talents of individuals; to have them in positions where they function most effectively and efficiently. Now the Army and Navy in training their reserve officers are testing individuals who are to be educated, before they enter upon their training period. They are taking as little chance as possible of losing time with those who are incapable, or overlooking those who have potentialities. Which is as it should be. Yet under ordinary circumstances the average high school youth can get little or no assistance in determining his interests and abilities. Within the institutions of learning, at both secondary and collegiate levels, little effort is made to study individual capacities, or adjust the curriculum to individual needs. A year ago I made a rough estimate in one college of the number of courses in which students received failures or conditions, and found that for one semester the hours of failure or condition obtained would have put approximately 125 students through the University from time of entrance until they received a bachelor's degree. That was peace!

¹ Walter V. Bingham, "How the Army Sorts Its Man Power," *Harper's*, September, 1942.

GOVERNMENT WORK PROJECTS

THE war furnishes us and the world with the most gigantic and all-pervasive governmental project that history has ever known. Vast numbers of persons are employed at government expense on projects planned and directed by the government. Vast public-works programs are being pushed to completion. Camps, roads, railroads, and a flood of goods are being built or produced at government expense, and under government direction. In many cases the workers are on the government payroll. Vast housing, recreational, and welfare programs are being developed for government workers and members of the armed forces. We have the most gargantuan WPA program ever. But we hear nothing about national bankruptcy or the shame of working on WPA. Society has set a goal for itself which it is determined to reach, and the interference of artificial barriers is swept aside. Which is as it should be.

Clearly the principles whereby employment has been eliminated in the defense program are the same as those which underlay the WPA depression program. During the depression the WPA was depreciated and maligned. It was looked upon by traditionalists as inimical to economic progress. The whole program was forcing us into bankruptcy. And that despite the fact that from the standpoint of constructive, conserving, upbuilding activities the depression WPA surely stands comparison with current activities directed toward destruction, loss of life, and an essentially wasteful use of our natural resources. The same principles which are now accepted as necessary concomitants to our national war effort were then crack-pot theories which could only bring the nation to ruin. But—that was peace!

As a result of the war our economic thinking has been revolutionized. We have accepted planning on a national scale. We have an objective to achieve; there is an end to be attained. It's "Get the job done. We have a task to accomplish." The question of profit or loss to individuals does not enter so strongly. If it is 50,000 airplanes we need to win the war, we will have them if it is humanly possible. Can anyone imagine that under the stress of war we will let our armed forces go hungry because it isn't profitable to feed them? Of course not! At any rate financial shibboleths will not stand in the way. Which is as it should be. Yet during the depression thousands of people went hungry, shabbily clothed, and poorly housed because we thought we couldn't afford to operate our economic system

to take care of the situation. That was peace!

THESE contrasts, of course, suffer from the defects of over-simplification and sweeping generalizations. Nor is the argument to be construed as denying that we must not now bring the war to a decisive victory. But the contrasts are essentially true, and an examination of them brings out vividly some of the shortcomings of our traditional peacetime organization. For youth the typical conditions of peace cannot hold a candle to those conditions obtaining under war so far as the opportunity for securing a significant place in society, the excitement of challenge, or the opportunity for advancement is concerned. We have cause to dread the day that young men and women return to their local communities if what they must return to is stagnation, degradation, and futility. They will have just reason for condemning a social organization which demands that of them. Our only hope is to organize our peacetime activities around goals of significance—the elimination of disease, poor housing, bad nutrition, and poverty; the creation of beauty; the dissemination of culture; the conservation of

both material and human values; the development of a strong educational system; the development of understanding and good will. And then to utilize those principles, which are now being effectively used for destruction, for the achievement of these goals.

Our experience in this war proves that the form of our social and economic organization is determined by the concepts we hold and the values we cherish. If in peacetime we believed as strongly in a constructive, expanding, society as we do in war; if we could set our goals as clearly for building during the post-war period as we can for destruction during war, there would be no problem of post-war stagnation. What we can afford and what we can do is limited only by our natural resources, the intelligence of the people, and their will to accomplish. When we have lost our resources, or no longer have the intelligence to utilize them effectively, when we have lost our will to do—then *we are* nationally bankrupt. The real frontier which must now be conquered lies in the minds of men.

Can we learn a lesson for peacetime from the war? 'Tis an ill wind that blows nobody good.

... There are times when idealism—that is, thinking in terms of ultimate objectives and high attainments—is also the most intensely practical type of thinking. This is particularly true when, as now, new pathways over unfamiliar terrain are to be surveyed and opened, when imagination and inventiveness must be added to knowledge and industry.

Besides, nothing could be more impractical than the alternative to hopeful planning. The story of our former failures to plan and act wisely is now being written in blood and tears. Whatever our proposals may lack in realism, they certainly will not lead to any result more clumsy, wasteful, and impractical than the destruction caused by modern war.

We believe that the really impractical people in this world are those who resign themselves to wars on an inevitable, recurrent, and ever more destructive basis. People who called themselves hard-headed realists have proved on former occasions that the thirteen colonies could never be united, that modern industry could not function without child labor, that education of all the children of all the people was an impious and scandalous notion, that chattel slavery could not be destroyed because it was divinely approved, that no gentleman could ever adjudicate a personal quarrel except with a pistol at forty paces, and that the flying machine was a physical impossibility, the steamboat a dreamer's folly, and the telephone a passing fad.

No major forward step in human relations has ever been taken that was not called impractical by the self-styled realists. History will show who are the real dreamers. Meanwhile, we admit that some of these proposals are idealistic and suggest that this admitted fact is an excellent reason for supporting them (Educational Policies Commission, *Education and the People's Peace*, 1943, p. 50f.

Basic Language in a Social Studies Class

J. Donald Neill

IN THESE stirring times such phrases as "global warfare," "racial tensions," "minority groups," and "intolerant nationalities" are being used frequently, and condensed language courses are a very tangible part of the training and mental armament of thousands of our men in the armed service. Perhaps, in such times, the diverse language backgrounds of pupils can be capitalized in building better intercultural relationships instead of being allowed to continue as a divisive factor in school and community relationships.

The campus high school at West Virginia University has a melting-pot student body, averaging 600, composed of a mixture of fifth- and sixth-generation "American" stock from rural school districts together with a range of from 15 to 22 different nationalities of second-generation Americans from industrial and mining districts.

Inevitably social problems have arisen. The children of the foreign born have been more energetic, and a few of them have monopolized the student-body offices. The result has been jealousy on the part of the "old-line" Americans. This condition fostered a peculiar inferiority mental set in the less aggressive nonofficeholding foreign-born children so that they began to resent their foreign backgrounds, their "differentness." Within the various classes, while there were occasional hopeful exceptions, there was pretty much of an oil-and-water condition.

What better place to tackle a real social problem than in a social studies class! Simplifying the situation as much as possible, the author focussed his attention on two major and basic problems: first, getting the two groups to engage in an activity which required unreserved and total class co-operation; and second, making the children

of foreign-born parents feel that they were worth while and that their background might help, rather than prevent, their being happy school citizens.

THE subject of nationalities was brought up by the teacher, during a discussion period. Various pupils were questioned about their nationalities, and it was pointed out that all in the room, including the teacher, were actually descendants of foreign peoples. This discussion led to a census taking of the class by a committee, appointed by the teacher, made up of members of both antagonistic groups. It was found that most were of mixed ancestry, but the "dominant" nationality was recorded.

Following this, the geography of the nations thus represented was studied and something of the history and the part each plays in current world affairs was presented in a series of oral reports. At this stage it was quite evident that many of the children of the "many generation" American families were almost as proud of their foreign (English, Scotch, German) ancestry as they were of being Americans.

The next step was the planning of an exhibit of articles which the families represented in the class had brought from their once-native countries. The collection and cataloging of the articles was done by another of our "mixed membership" committees and arranged for display by another.

During a discussion of the exhibit it was pointed out that there were often less tangible things than spoons, shawls, dishes, and books brought to this country by newcomers; things like songs, art, customs, and language, and that, four or five generations back, Mary Hinzeman's people spoke German just as Ledy Agafanoff's parents now spoke Russian and Dominick Marra's spoke Italian. Can Ledy "talk Russian"? Ledy, embarrassed but proud, to the delight and admiration of her listeners could, and did, "talk Russian."

We now took our second census. How many languages were spoken by the members of the class? When the talents of the pupils and the

An effort to turn differences in national and language backgrounds into assets rather than liabilities is described by an instructor in the College of Education, University of West Virginia, who supervises student teachers in the University High School.

student teachers were combined, the list included Spanish, French, Italian, Russian, Polish, Croatian, Portuguese, and Lithuanian. Would the class like to learn a few phrases in those languages? The "Sure" that followed was immediate and convincingly enthusiastic.

More discussions. What to learn? That finally resolved itself to "some words necessary to know if one was suddenly set down in that country," as the pupils expressed it. The group decision arrived at the following: How are you? I am a friend. I am an American. What is your name? Where am I? Give me something to eat. Give me something to drink. Please. Thanks. No. Yes.

The next class decision, since we were only learning to say the phrases, set us to spelling them phonetically. The English alphabet fell short in some instances, but we finally arrived at approximations for most of the words.

Now the real work began. Memorization of "nonsense syllables," for such they were, was not easy, but the pupils all worked enthusiastically. The "rural" members tried to outdo each other and the other members in memorization, and the little "foreigners" beamed with pride of accomplishment. They were helping—their mother tongue was getting recognition—they were doing "teaching" that their teacher couldn't do! What's more, the foreign-born parents entered into the activities. "Could they please be of any help?" And "My Tony's Italian" (and "My Mary's Polish") "is so poor."

In no time every one in the group knew the greetings and the beginning of each class had its buzz of "hello's" in many tongues. Pupils brought clippings for the bulletin boards—pictures of cities in various foreign countries; an article about City College of New York, which was organizing a college course around a study of general languages; bits about the army giving a "nucleus vocabulary" to troops going to foreign soil.

There was never a moment of inactivity during any class, nor as far as the instructor and student teachers could tell was there a moment of wasted time. Groups, led by "pupil teachers" formed at every table and in each room corner. Lunch hours found groups of fifth-generation and second-generation Americans working together, munching sandwiches, and repeating "Yo soy ameego" and "Ya Amerikanski."

OUTCOMES

AT THE end of three weeks the "pupil teacher" gave the tests and insisted on perfect mastery of words and more than "reasonable facsimile" pronunciation.

A set of questions was proposed by the instructor, less as a test than as a guide to student-thinking in self-evaluation. The eleven questions were as follows:

1. Have you found the work interesting?
2. Did you get pleasure out of learning some words of a foreign language?
3. Do you see any permanent good to the unit?
4. What was your opinion of the exhibit?
5. What lasting effect will this work have?
6. Do you know your classmates better than you did before we began this activity?
7. Did you learn many new things about foreign countries?
8. Do you feel that your attitude toward so-called "foreigners" has changed?
9. Did you learn more than the "required" words?
10. Would you like to follow up this study—go further into the work?
11. Have you more pride in your nationality than you had?

The key questions, Number 6, 8, and 11 were purposely sandwiched in to conceal the teacher's objectives.

The results? Who knows? All teachers of social studies proceed on faith and deal in futures. These facts, however, were substantiated. Several pupils learned many more than the required phrases and one or two kept on until they possessed a fair conversational knowledge of at least one foreign tongue. Perhaps this is an argument for a method for teaching "basic Italian" or "basic Polish," etc. Next, the setup compelled co-operative action—the committee member had a joint responsibility—the pupils had to come to certain key individuals for help—there could not be "standoffish" attitudes. From the answers to the questions and from conferences with pupils there was an unmistakable awakening in pride of heritage among the foreign born and a frankly admitted feeling of friendliness for these "foreign children" by the "natives" who had by their own confessions "never spoken to them before."

The author can remember no class which from the time of the experiment until the end of the year, could excel this group in intra-pupil friendliness and co-operation.

Field Trips in Government Courses

Edna M. McGlynn

FIELD trips provide one of the chief sources of instruction in the Government course at the Salem Teachers College. The class meets for three periods a week during a single semester. One of these is devoted to textbook and current-events discussion; the second is for the field trip; and the third for discussion of the field trip and for necessary tests. The organization outlined in our textbook, Charles A. Beard's *American Government and Politics*, is followed in our field-trip program: namely that of federal, state, and local government, with the subdivision of legislative, executive, and judicial branches within each.

FEDERAL COURTS AND OTHER AGENCIES

THE first chapter in Beard, "The American Constitutional System," is introductory to the general subject. So is the first field trip. Each student is given the name of an individual Supreme Court case which he is to read at the Salem Superior Court Library. Previous to the trip the teacher explains the significance of the numbers attached to the names of the cases, such as *Bigelow vs. Forrest* (9 Wallace 339), *McCulloch vs. Maryland* (4 Wheaton 316), *Bailey vs. Alabama* (165 U.S. 275), indicating the separate collections of Supreme Court decisions made at different periods in American history. (To refresh the teacher's memory in preparing to check the students' reports in class, it is well to borrow a casebook on constitutional law from some library and read the summary of each case.) Previous to the trip also, the students are instructed to read their own case first, then to browse about the library, noting which governments, state and national, are represented by whole alcoves or sections of casebooks. Finally,

The value and practicability of field trips varies with the range of nearby resources and with transportation facilities. Yet, as an instructor in the State Teachers College at Salem, Massachusetts, makes clear, trips can contribute a vitality and a deepness of impression that more than compensate for the trouble they may cause.

they are instructed to ask the court librarian to allow them to inspect the court stenographer's typed record of the Berett-Molway murder case of which they are to skim through the last twenty pages or so. (The Berett-Molway case involves one of the most startling murder charges in American history. Two men, Berett and Molway, were identified by seven responsible witnesses of the Lynn Paramount Theater murder; the trial was almost concluded on a Friday afternoon when the court recessed; yet over the weekend the district attorney discovered evidence which proved the defendants unquestionably innocent.) As a result of their work on this trip, the students begin to realize the complexity of the American legal setup, from the original record of the county court stenographer to the final decision of the Supreme Court of the United States. They begin to understand the meaning of such terms as common law, statute law, federal and state law, civil and criminal law.

The other federal agencies which the students visit are: the Salem, Lynn, or Boston Post Office; the Salem or Boston Customs House; the Social Security Office in Salem; the Naval Hospital in Chelsea or the Old Soldiers' Home in Chelsea; and—in peacetime—the Coast Guard Station at Salem Willows and the lighthouse at Beverly or Marblehead.

The Salem Post Office trip takes no more than an hour, but within that time the students gain much knowledge about the collection, cancellation, and sorting of mail, the procedure for registering and insuring mail, the function of money orders and postal saving, the means used by the government to protect mail within the post office and outside, the parcel-post regulations, and finally, the relations between the office and the collector of internal revenue. Those students who choose to visit the Boston Post Office are generally overwhelmed by the complexity and necessary efficiency of the central post office of one of the nation's largest cities. Ordinarily they also take time to visit briefly some of the other floors of the Federal Building (the post-office building) to observe the activities of the Federal Government agencies housed there.

in, varying as they do from naturalization of the foreign born to recruiting for the Navy.

The contrast between the trips to the Salem and Boston Customs Houses is also striking. The Salem Customs House, once a sizable building at Derby Wharf when the China trade was flourishing, is now quartered upstairs in the post-office building with one man in charge. He explains to the students the extent of Salem's trade in past centuries, the tariffs now levied on the foreign products coming into the harbor, the effect of the reciprocal trade treaties locally, the inspection of ships, the harbor dues on coastwise traffic, the licensing of motor craft, the necessity for inland customs houses, and the clerical work sent up from the Boston to the Salem office. The visit to the Boston Customs House involves a tour of the massive building with a regular guide, and conversations with various officials about the system used in determining tariffs on all kinds of products.

A visit to the social security headquarters in Salem, another small office, gives the students the chance to discuss with a government official detailed information concerning unemployment insurance, old-age insurance, and the like, which is next to impossible for any one teacher of the social studies to master. Visits to the Naval Hospital and the Old Soldiers' Home forcibly draw to the students' attention many of the costs of war not stressed in textbooks, including the government rehabilitation program. It is not possible under war conditions, of course, but in peacetime we make regular trips to the Coast Guard Station. We have always found the officials accommodating in allowing students to see their airplanes and radio equipment, and in explaining the nature of their work, particularly the extent to which aid is tendered to civilians, generally fishermen, in the daily patrol of the coast from Canada to Connecticut. The students are also allowed to see the barracks. An historical contrast is then brought out by a visit to the nearby old fort, used during the War of 1812. The trip to a lighthouse, while taking little time, made real not only the physical mechanism used, but the extent of federal control over commerce, and the occasional inexplicable divisions of authority among different departments of the government.

STATE AGENCIES

TRIPS designed to clarify the operations of state government are made to the State House, the State Prison at Charlestown, the State

Hospital at Danvers, and the State Employment Agency at Salem. At the State House the excellent guides show unusual courtesy by abandoning the regular tour designed to show the points of interest to strangers, and conduct a special tour explaining the departments of government to the students. In particular, they point out the offices of the various departments, the offices of the Governor and the Governor's Council, the Archives, the State Library, and the original charter from an English king for the Massachusetts Bay Colony. They allow the students considerable time to sit in on the committee meetings for the public hearings on bills to come before the legislature (Massachusetts has a unique system for the study of bills) and to attend sessions of the Senate and the House. The students go home thrilled at their experience with the public hearings, but as deeply impressed with the necessity for quiet and courtesy in legislative debate as if they had visited the capitol in Washington. Unfortunately, the Massachusetts legislature meets now only biennially, so that on alternate years the students do not have a chance to see it in action.

The students visit the State Prison in Charlestown in small groups. They are provided with guides who demonstrate the extreme caution taken for the protection of prisoners and guards, and the provision for work, exercise, recreation, and feeding of the prisoners. None of the students gains the notion that crimes pays pleasant dividends. At the State Hospital for the Insane in Danvers guides are also furnished to conduct the men students through the men's wards, and the women students through the women's wards. If there is any tendency to consider insanity funny, that tendency is entirely cured by the trip. The attendants explain, in short lectures before the trips, the causes and types of insanity and the hopes and methods of cure. The students are brought through all but the most violent wards: they have the chance to see the use of hydrotherapy (water-cure); they are allowed to talk with patients at work in kitchens and on the grounds. The invariable reaction is admiration for the wonderful work now being done by the State, through its doctors, for the mentally ill, coupled with a realization of the immediate need for more extensive housing facilities and better economic provision for hospital employees.

The visit to the State Employment Agency in Salem, a much shorter trip, gives the students, through an interview and the inspection of the

office, a better understanding of the way in which the State and Federal Government co-operate in the application of the social-security laws, and the way in which the State has been extending its aid in the finding of employment opportunities for the individual citizen.

LOCAL AGENCIES

IN THE study of local government, it is possible, within the same greater-Boston and greater-Salem area, to discover numerous county, city, and town agencies. One required trip for every student is a forty-five minute visit to a court trial at the Superior Court. The trial may be of a civil, probate, or criminal case. Civil cases dealing with automobile accidents are most common. The Court attendants are helpful in that they will exclude students if the nature of the case or the evidence being given might be harmful to their morals. Otherwise students are admitted to any courtroom. Although they are required to go but once, it is an experience in which they become very much interested, to the extent that many form the habit of dropping into the court house from time to time to see what is going on.

A trip to the County Jail is optional. The students are interested in comparing the types and treatment of prisoners with what they saw in the State Prison at Charlestown. In Salem the less serious offenses, the shorter sentences, the smaller numbers of inmates, make for decided contrast. Some students prefer a trip to the City Police Court and the adjacent City Jail. At the city building they also find opportunity to inquire into the work of the Court of Small Claims, so helpful to the average citizen in dealing with minor controversies which need to be settled without the incurring of large fees or court costs.

Other local trips are made to the County Registry of Deeds, local city halls, city poor farms, and town meetings. In going to the Registry of Deeds, each student must have with him the name of some property owner in Essex County in or about Salem, and the date of his purchase of the property. Following directions given in class, the student first finds the blueprint for the property, then traces the deed back for at least four transfers, and finally checks for any recent mortgages or attachments. Here again, the attendants are most helpful showing the students everything from the way a deed is stamped on receipt, to the oldest records of Colonial Planters, now kept under lock and key. The students are

not a little surprised at the information open to the public at the registry: they had considered much of it in the same light as family skeletons.

Reports from students who visit city halls invariably bring out differences in local practices among the varying types of city charters provided by the State. The State control of the Boston police system, the city-manager arrangement in Cambridge, the mayor-and-board-of-aldermen type in Beverly do not pass without notice. In visiting city poor farms, the students have their choice of the huge City of Boston establishment at Long Island in Boston Harbor, the moderately large City Poor Farm at Salem Willows, and the small homelike farms in some of the smaller communities around Salem. Those who go to the Boston institution return amazed at the amount of charitable work still incumbent upon a city, even after the social-security laws have been put into effect, at the dormitories, kitchens, hospital wards, and recreation centers. They learn of the distinction, adopted early in Boston, between "indoor" and "outdoor" relief: the development of the city welfare work that made unnecessary in Boston the breadlines common in other cities in the early 1930's; the still tremendous problem to the city of the care of the poor who are mentally or physically ill. In visiting the Salem Poor Farm, the empty halls again remind the students of the change in attitude toward the care of the indigent, and the present extent of "outdoor" relief everywhere. The causes of dependency and the costs to the city of dependency are explained by the city official in charge; the official knows the name and history of each inmate.

Attendance at a real town meeting is the field trip which gives the greatest delight to the urban students. Most of them have considered the town meeting as an historic step in American self-government now fallen into disuse. To discover town meetings they can actually attend before returning home from college in the evening, in Manchester, Danvers, or places nearer Boston, is a pleasant surprise. They come into class with copies of the warrants that were discussed, opinions on the problems debated, and humorous tales of the town orator who attempted to monopolize the proceedings. But they do see an actual democratic form of government in which every citizen may avail himself of the right to be heard on any question that touches his interests and in which the whole adult community may consider community problems.

VALUES AND STUDENT COMMENTS

MANY substitutions could be made in this list of field trips for the study of government. The reaction to the program by many a teacher might well be: "It is all very interesting, but a great waste of time. Much more can be learned by concentrating on the text." Such is not the case. The students cover the same amount of textbook reading as is required in the average college course. The chief difference is that they voluntarily spend more time on the study of government, because they are interested. In the first place, a trip to the Boston Customs House, State House, or State Prison is anticipated with pleasure, and may bring with it the possibility of going afterwards to supper and a show in the city. When it comes time to read the chapter in the text related to the trip, the reading is easy. "We knew most of that anyway; we learned it on the field trip," is the student attitude. Supplementary material, such as Clarke's *Social Legislation*, is approached with relish, whether it has to do with the custody of children or the care of the aged. The ground work has been laid. Tests given at the end of the course show satisfactory results.

Most encouraging of all is the continued interest displayed by the students after leaving college. The boys in the army write back about the things they see related to what they once studied. One sends a clipping or two from a local newspaper concerning a Georgia election, where the atmosphere is very different from the atmosphere at the political rallies he attended as a field trip for his government class. Another writes from Oklahoma: "I still remember the Supreme Court case I did, and I've been telling the natives what I know about Oklahoma's capitol. Are they surprised at what we Easterners learn at school! And even you would be surprised at the time I have spent looking at historic spots in Oklahoma City and Guthrie!" Another writes from South Carolina to comment on the Southern interpretation of the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth amendments, as seen in practice. Another writes from England: "I'll be glad to send you copies of the Beveridge Report for your government classes." The field trip made government real, not just a subject learned from a text and quickly forgotten.

At Salem we are deeply grateful for the kind-

ness and courtesy shown us by federal, state, and local employees alike. In no instance have we been made to feel that we were intruders, or were imposing upon the time of busy public servants. Year after year the students are met by the same men, who with never-flagging enthusiasm, try to make clear the nature and value of their work.

SCHOOL APPLICATIONS AND PROBLEMS

TO MAKE practical use of the college program in effect at Salem, a secondary-school teacher of government would have to arrange a few adaptations, but these would not amount to basic changes. For example, greater Salem and greater Boston are what Henry Johnson calls "favored communities." Many teachers would not find in their own localities the wealth of opportunity for government study which is present here, but opportunities of one kind are available in any city or town, and the teacher could utilize them in so far as possible.

In the secondary school, the instructor would find it necessary to accompany each group going on a trip, or to provide that some reliable person be with the children to prevent accidents and to maintain the order and discipline necessary for learning. With college students it is possible to divide a class into three or four groups, sending each group to a different institution, under the guidance of a student chairman. Thus, in the subsequent class discussion, diversified points of view can be presented.

To ask the teacher to sacrifice her vacations or her Saturdays regularly is just as unreasonable as to ask the children to do so. The practical solution is to have the school official responsible for making out the program arrange to put one government period a week into the last period of the school day. The teacher and class could then leave the school at the beginning of the period, and in many cases the trip could be concluded within the hour and the children sent directly home. A few school systems are so complex that such adjustments could not readily be made, but the average school setup is sufficiently elastic to take care of reasonable innovations.

Certainly, however, the value of trips in adding realism, in providing specific examples for textbook generalizations, and in reaching students who do not learn readily from the printed page, should not be overlooked in any teaching situation.

Exploring the Pacific

Marguerite Burbanck Strahan

AS THE interest of many Americans has turned to the Pacific area, it seems very fitting to offer our pupils an opportunity to learn more about that region. Therefore in the spring session of 1943 our curriculum contained a new elective course for seniors called "Pacific Relations."

The work for the semester was centered around five major areas in the Pacific region: China, Japan, India, Russia, and the China Seas. Less attention was given to Australia, New Zealand, Hawaii, and the Philippines.

The basic text selected for the course was *Pacific Relations* by Walter Gailey Hoffmann.¹ In addition we used the set of booklets on the Far East issued by the American Council of the Institute of Pacific Relations.² The one on Australia will be added next semester.

Especially helpful in organizing the new course and finding current articles of interest was the Far East Bibliography which listed, according to country and issue, the articles which have appeared in *Life*, *Time*, and *Fortune* magazines.³ The Pacific Relations supplement issued in the August, 1942, issue of *Fortune* was used to study post-war plans.

During the semester two special projects were sponsored by the class to help the remainder of the school understand more about the Pacific area. The first was a forum with three pupil speakers. Talks on the Pacific Yesterday, the Pacific Today, and the Pacific Tomorrow were fol-

lowed by pupil discussion. The second project was called "Oriental Allies Day." The allied countries honored were: Australia, New Zealand, India, Russia, China, Hawaii, and the Philippines. The main observance of the day took place in the school cafeteria. The manager of the cafeteria provided an Oriental menu, while Hawaiian music was played during the noon hour. Magnolias, of Chinese origin, were used for decoration together with large flags of the Allies, large colored drawings of Oriental figures, and posters made by members of the class.

Of special interest on "Oriental Allies Day" was an interesting and valuable exhibit of antique and modern Chinese arts and crafts loaned by the Krug Chinese Imports Company of Baltimore, Maryland. Schools borrowing the exhibit pay express charges; pupils and teachers are given the opportunity of purchasing any of the articles from the import company. Beautiful Chinese tapestries, bowls, linens, dolls, embroideries, boxes, etc. were included in the display.

The Far East packets of the United State Office of Education were very helpful to the pupils during the semester. Good supplementary reading on the high school level is sent, on request, to schools for two-week periods. Franked labels are furnished for return postage.

Each pupil kept a record of happenings in the Pacific, and events were discussed by the class. At the end of the semester each pupil gave his own news résumé over the public address system of the school.

During the semester four speakers added much to the pupils' knowledge of the Pacific area: a girl who had lived in China, a boy who had lived in India, an American sailor who had been on duty in the Pacific, and a college student who was making a special study of Russia.

Mimeographed outlines of main materials to be covered were given to pupils at the beginning of the semester, and these were used as study guides. Special book reports of outstanding books in this field were also given from time to time. The class did some work in the local college library on materials which the high school did not have.

¹ New York: McGraw-Hill, 1936. Pp. xix, 539. \$1.96.

² William Henry Chamberlin, *Modern Japan*; Elizabeth Allerton Clark, *Peoples of the China Seas*; Marguerite Ann Stewart, *Land of the Soviets*; George Taylor, *Changing China*. New York: Institute of Pacific Relations, and St. Louis: Webster Publishing Co., 1942-43. Each pp. 94, 40 cents. C. Hartley Grattan, *Lands Down Under*, is now also available. The series is published in a volume entitled *Our Neighbors Across the Pacific*, at \$1.25.

³ Prepared by the Bureau of Special Services of Time, Inc., January, 1943.

A teacher of history in the Richmond (Indiana) High School describes an elective course recently established for seniors.

The response of the class to the course was most gratifying. Pupils were deeply interested and many did much more work and received a better grade than in other of their courses. At the end of the semester they all endorsed it heartily and are advocating that their friends enroll next semester. One value which pupils said they received was being able to discuss this area intelligently with their friends when the latter return from Pacific war duty. Some of the boys enrolled are already in active service, so no doubt they will understand the Pacific more for having had a basic course in this field in high school.

OUTLINE

- I. Geography of the Pacific area: map study for general acquaintance with chief areas
- II. Main groups of peoples in the Pacific area
 - A. Natives
 - B. Colonizing nations
- III. Reasons for European interest in the Orient
- IV. Development of American interests in the Orient
 - A. First groups to become acquainted with the Orient
 - B. Later groups, their interests and occupations
- V. Origin and growth of American ownership in the Pacific: the United States becomes a "Pacific nation"
- VI. American policies towards the Oriental nations: from early times to Pearl Harbor
- VII. United States brought into the war: study of war developments from 1941 to date
- VIII. Possible peace and post-war plans
- IX. Detailed study of each major country (separate outlines for each one)
- X. Detailed study of each minor area (separate outlines for each one).

ARTICLES AND PAMPHLETS

Articles in current-events magazines for the schools were read, as were such articles in other weekly publications as the Russian issue of *Life* (March 29, 1943). The charts on India and China issued by the National Forum, 417 South Dearborn Street, Chicago, were useful. Bibliographies on China, India, and the Near East were obtained from the East and West Association, 40 East 49th Street, New York. Bibliographies and pamphlets on Oriental art, music, and literature were obtained from the Service Bureau for Intercultural Education, 221 West 57th Street, New York. The Australian News and Information Bureau, 610 Fifth Avenue, provided material on the Commonwealth and its people. The Headline Books published by the Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38th Street, New York, include W. C. Langsam, *In Quest of Empire; the Problem of Colonies*; T. A. Bisson, *Shadow Over Asia; the Rise of Militant Japan*; W. C. Johnstone, *The Changing Far East*; and C. F. Reid, *Overseas America, Our Territorial Outposts*.

BOOKS

The following books have been surveyed either by members of the class or the instructor during the past year and are recommended for general reading or for reading in a particular field.

1. Abend, Hallett. *Pacific Charter*. Garden City: Doubleday Doran, 1943. Pp. viii, 302. \$2.50.
2. Abend, Hallett. *Ramparts of the Pacific*. Garden City: Doubleday Doran, 1942. Pp. xviii, 332. \$3.50.
3. Bigland, Eileen. *Into China*. New York: Macmillan, 1941. Pp. 298. \$3.00.
4. Carroll, Wallace. *We're in This with Russia*. New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1942. Pp. viii, 264. \$2.00.
5. Chiang Kai-shek, Madame. *This Is Our China*. New York: Harper, 1940. Pp. 312. \$3.00.
6. Davies, Joseph E. *Mission to Moscow*. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1941. Pp. xxii, 659. \$3.00.
7. Falk, Edwin A. *From Perry to Pearl Harbor*. Garden City: Doubleday Doran, 1943. Pp. 362. \$3.00.
8. Follett, Helen. *Ocean Outposts*. New York: Scribner's, 1942. Pp. 133. \$2.00.
9. Gayn, Mark. *The Fight for the Pacific*. New York: Morrow, 1941. Pp. xii, 378. \$3.50.
10. Grew, Joseph. *Report from Tokyo*. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1942. Pp. xxvii, 88. \$1.50.
11. Gunther, John. *Inside Asia*. New York: Harper, 1942. Pp. xii, 637. \$3.50.
12. Hersey, John R. *Men on Bataan*. New York: Knopf, 1942. Pp. 313. \$2.50.
13. Hill, Ernestine. *Great Australian Loneliness*. New York: Ryerson Press, 1937. Pp. 334. \$4.50.
14. Keesing, Felix M. *The South Seas in the Modern World*. New York: Day, 1941. Pp. xv, 391. \$3.50.
15. Kiralfy, Alexander. *Victory in the Pacific*. New York: Day, 1942. Pp. xiv, 283. \$2.75.
16. Leonard, Royal. *I Flew for China*. New York: Doubleday Doran, 1942. Pp. xx, 295. \$2.50.
17. Miller, C. C. *Black Borneo*. New York: Modern Age, 1942. Pp. x, 278. \$2.75.
18. Poliakoff, Aleksandr. *Russians Don't Surrender*. New York: Dutton, 1942. Pp. 191. \$2.50.
19. Potter, Jean. *Alaska Under Arms*. New York: Macmillan, 1942. Pp. x, 200. \$2.00.
20. Rickenbacker, Edward Vernon. *Seven Came Through*. New York: Doubleday Doran, 1943. Pp. x, 118. \$1.50.
21. Romulo, Carlos. *I Saw the Fall of the Philippines*. New York: Doubleday Doran, 1942. Pp. viii, 323. \$3.00.
22. Steiner, Jesse. *Behind the Japanese Mask*. New York: Macmillan, 1943. Pp. 159. \$2.00.
23. Sutherland, Halliday. *Southward Journey*. London: Bles, 1942. Pp. vii, 320. 15 s.
24. Timasheff, N. S. *Religion in Soviet Russia*. New York: Sheed and Ward, 1942. Pp. xii, 171. \$2.00.
25. White, Margaret Bourke. *Shooting the Russian War*. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1942. Pp. xiv, 298. \$2.75.
26. White, William Lindsay. *They Were Expendable*. New York: Harcourt Brace, 1942. Pp. vii, 209. \$2.00.
27. Willkie, Wendell. *One World*. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1943. Pp. x, 206. \$2.00; paper \$1.00.

Price Panels

J. Cecil Parker

ONE hundred thousand Americans have undertaken voluntarily to help promote understanding and positive support of necessary wartime price regulations by serving on price panels. More than 5000 price panels have been established; soon there will be one for each of the 5500 War Price and Rationing Boards.

A price panel is a committee of three to five, sometimes more, local citizens charged with the responsibility of dealing with the problems growing out of price control which affect retailers and consumers. Aiding each panel is a corps of ten or more assistants and usually a paid clerk. Panel members and their assistants, all volunteers, are selected to represent a cross section of their community. They come from every walk of life: housewives, teachers, professional men, laborers, etc. They are appointed by the district director of the Office of Price Administration upon the recommendation of the chairman of the rationing board. In many cases nominations are made by the local defense council. Administratively price panels are attached to the War Price and Rationing Boards.

In their work with retail price regulations, price panels have three functions:

1. To furnish information to retailers and consumers. A price panel serves as the center of information on retail price control in the community. It disseminates materials, answers inquiries, and arranges meetings, panel discussions, and other activities of an educational nature.
2. To urge compliance with regulations. Price panels seek to secure voluntary compliance with price regulations. In cases of violation or apparent violation they act as friendly adjusters.
3. To furnish information to OPA. Price panels channel information concerning the operation of price control in the community to OPA district, regional, and national offices. They act as a barometer on local conditions.

Efforts to maintain democratic procedures in the enforcement of price controls are described by the chief of the Educational Service's Branch of the Office of Price Administration.

Price panels deal exclusively with retail price regulations; they do not consider matters connected with rationing. Their principal work is with food price controls. Briefly, these are the price regulations with which they are most concerned: market-basket dollars-and-cents maximum prices have been placed on meats and about 80 per cent of all grocery items. These top legal prices vary from community to community, depending upon nearness to markets and other factors. They vary also from store to store within the community, depending upon the amount of goods the store sells and the type of ownership of the store, i.e. chain or independent ownership. On this basis stores are divided into four groups. The top legal prices are slightly different for each group. The retailer may charge below the maximum prices but not above them. Each store owner must post the group in which his store belongs and top legal prices for that group.

THE OPERATION OF PRICE PANELS

MOST price panels meet regularly once or twice a week. The meetings usually are held at a time convenient for the merchants in the locality. Panels ordinarily spend most of their meeting time in dealing with cases of misunderstanding and violation of price regulations. They spend the remainder of their time in developing positive programs designed to secure understanding of and co-operation with price regulations both on the part of the consumer and the retailer. Following are typical price-panel activities:

1. Price-panel assistants, after becoming acquainted with price regulations and the work of the Office of Price Administration, are sent out to visit the storekeepers in the district and to explain to them the terms of price regulations and the proper posting of prices. Materials are distributed and questions are answered. Follow-up visits are made when changes in regulations occur or when special problems arise.

2. When complaints of violations of price ceilings are received from consumers, panel assistants are sent out to investigate. They talk with

the storekeeper about the complaint. Very often they discover that the difficulty is due to misunderstanding and are able to straighten it out then and there.

3. Sometimes a merchant is asked to attend a meeting of the price panel. There, in a spirit of friendly co-operation, the members of the panel, friends and neighbors of the storekeeper; whose opinion he respects, point out to him that he is violating a price regulation, explain the purpose and importance of price control, listen to his side of the story concerning the violation, and work out an acceptable solution to the problem. Usually the price panel succeeds in securing a promise of future co-operation.

4. Price panels receive and transmit to the district offices complaints received from retailers.

5. Price panels keep records of ceiling prices filed with them by the merchants in their areas.

6. Programs are developed for informing the public of price regulations. This work usually is done through the community-service members of the War Price and Rationing Board.

THE SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF PRICE PANELS

THE price-panel program represents an outstanding opportunity for self-government in a time of difficult national stress. It is based on the belief that local problems can best be handled by local people. Price-panel members and assistants are always representative citizens, a cross section of the life of the community which they serve. In their work with consumers and retailers they function as a group of neighbors trying co-operatively to find solutions to difficult price-control problems growing out of the war. As one price-panel chairman has aptly said, "This is democracy at work."

The theory behind the development of price panels is that the majority of the American people, consumers and retailers alike, will do that which is required of them to support the war effort on the home front if they understand exactly what it is that they are supposed to do and why they are supposed to do it. It is for this reason that the function of the price panels is solely that of furnishing information and securing voluntary adjustment to price regulation. Of course, there will always be a few chiselers who will violate price regulations for private gain. The district offices of OPA have enforcement machinery for taking care of people of that type. But the work of the price panels is with the great mass of the American people who are patriotically interested in doing all they can to

win the war and to keep steady the home front economy, and whose main need is for information concerning their part in this war effort.

The social studies teacher will immediately see the significant place occupied by the price panels in our wartime economy and the countless opportunities for making the work of these panels a part of the subject matter which he teaches. He will see that it is a challenge as well as an opportunity—that the resources and ingenuity of the social studies teacher are being put to the test.

Some of the activities which are being carried out with considerable success follow:

1. Many social studies teachers, at all grade levels, have helped their pupils discuss the reasons for the food-pricing program, how it operates in the local community, and the responsibilities of the student and his family in making the program work successfully.

2. A large number of social studies teachers are serving as price-panel members or assistants. Their experiences in this capacity, reinforced by visits to price-panel hearings by a selected group from the class or by a visit of a member of the price panel to the classroom, have become the basis for interesting lessons.

3. Social studies teachers, often in co-operation with English, home economics, and other departments in the junior and senior high school, have planned short curriculum units on "Community Prices," in which the work of price panels is featured. This activity has been particularly successful in civics, economics, history, and government courses.

4. Many social studies teachers, particularly those in the intermediate and upper elementary grades, have had their pupils make lists, charts, and cartoons emphasizing problems confronting both merchant and consumer in shopping under price controls.

5. Where the school system conducts broadcasts over local radio stations, senior high school social studies teachers and students have presented scripts discussing the reasons for and the value of price control.

6. Many social studies departments have sponsored assembly programs dramatizing the work of the local price panel.

7. In some classes the top legal prices for about fifty staple items have been secured from the Community Service Member of the local War Price and Rationing Board. This price information has been tabulated in brief and simple form and attached to the family ration book for use when shopping.

Peace as an Educational Problem

George B. de Huszar

PEACE, as most of us see it, is primarily an organizational problem. But suppose we were to look upon peace as chiefly an educational and psychological problem. Some things we have been doing would have to be stopped; other things we have not been doing to a sufficient extent, to prepare the public opinion for international co-operation, would have to be started.

Most recent discussions on post-war reconstruction concern themselves with the organizational aspect of the problem: the structure of the organization which can guarantee lasting peace. Thus the merit of a Federation of Nations is argued and the problem of representation in an international assembly is fervently discussed. It is often assumed that if such an organizational structure is sufficiently perfect, the solution for durable peace will have been found. It is not realized that the mere elaboration of blueprints is not enough, that no plan for an international organization, no matter how perfect, can succeed after the war unless public opinion is favorable to its acceptance and execution.

Laws cannot be enforced, organizations cannot work, without public support. As Lincoln remarked: "Public sentiment is everything. With public sentiment nothing can fail; without it nothing can succeed. Consequently he who moulds public sentiment goes deeper than he who enacts statutes or pronounces decisions. He makes statutes and decisions possible or impossible to be executed."

THE basic reason why the League of Nations failed was that it was in advance of public opinion. The members of the League were not fully aware of the interdependence of the world. They lacked an international consciousness, an internationally-minded public opinion. Without

such a public opinion, a willingness to co-operate in enforcing the Covenant of the League could not exist.

The League was fairly efficient in structure, in spite of such organizational flaws as the lack of an international police force. But it would have worked if the various members had been willing to co-operate. The League had no power of its own; it was merely an instrument which, if used, would have been able to guarantee security and peace. But it was not used; the member nations did not follow the fundamental principle of the Covenant, that the defense of each country is the responsibility of all. They failed to realize that the only way to insure security and peace is to get together to punish aggression whenever and wherever it arises.

People did not see that the defense of Manchuria or Ethiopia meant in the long run the defense of their own nations. They did not recognize the interdependence of the world which has been brought about by modern technology and economics. In the Ethiopian crisis, for example, many Englishmen exclaimed: "Why should Englishmen die for a small and remote country like Ethiopia?" Many Frenchmen said the same. And many Americans exclaimed: "Why shall we risk being involved in a war? After all, Ethiopia is in Africa, and Africa is far away from the United States!"

The prevailing public opinion in England, France, the United States, and other nations did not see that it was not a question of the defense of Ethiopia but a question of upholding international law and security. It was not realized that the fire that started in Manchuria and flamed up again in Ethiopia would spread sooner or later to England, France, and the United States. And that is what happened. The aggression against Austria, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Denmark, Norway, Holland, Belgium, France, the attempted invasion of England, and the attack on Pearl Harbor, were nothing but logical sequels to the criminal acts which were permitted to go unchecked and unpunished in Manchuria and Ethiopia.

This reminder that better education is basic to enduring peace comes from a writer and lecturer who was formerly a member of the department of anthropology in the University of Chicago.

JUDGING from the events of the past, it is no exaggeration to assert that the preparation of an internationally-minded public opinion is the most important step toward security and a durable peace. The last fifty years of history has one supreme lesson to teach: that unless the nations of the world learn to live together, they will not live at all, because they cannot live separately. If the nations of the world had learned this lesson, World War I might have been avoided; if they had learned it after that war, the subsequent peace effort would have been successful. Likewise, Hitler's success with his divide-and-conquer method, and the outbreak of the present war could have been prevented, if the various nations of the world had co-operated.

The supreme task of the present hour is an educational campaign to make it certain that this lesson is well learned. If it is, we shall be able to avoid the tragedies of the past, and win the coming peace. This campaign would point out the interdependence of the world and the necessity of co-operation in such a world. This interdependence has existed for some time, but the recognition of the fact has been lacking. The world has been a unity, mankind has tried to live as if it were not.

Such a campaign, reaching all strata of people through schools, adult-education groups, workers' and businessmen's organizations, radio, press, etc., must start now. The present war provides an excellent opportunity for the preparation of the public opinion for post-war reconstruction. People are forced daily to think in international terms. The global strategy demonstrates the interdependence of the world. Pearl Harbor has shown the futility of a policy of isolation.

During the last war no such educational campaign was instituted in the United States, England, and France. The consequent lack of public support in these countries—as I indicated—accounted in a large measure for the failure of the League. If, however, we create an internationally-minded public opinion during this war it will form the substructure upon which an effective organization can be built after the war is over. Such public opinion will also counteract the inevitable passion for revenge and the tendency toward narrow nationalism which might be a reaction after the war. It would furthermore subvert a possible upsurge of isolationism in the United States and other countries.

An internationally-minded public opinion would also override both the present disagreements between the United Nations and their pos-

sible disputes in the post-war world. There are bound to be such disputes over boundaries and political questions. If these are allowed to get the upper hand, they will cause disunity among the United Nations and thus hamper the task of post-war reconstruction. This danger exists if the United Nations concern themselves solely with the details of an international organization. For example, if Geneva is proposed as the center of such an organization, there will be some who will want to be in Washington or The Hague. Thus much time and energy might be wasted. If, however, an internationally-minded public opinion has been created, then the disputes over boundaries and other delicate questions will be more easily overcome.

THIS educational program has to be continued after the war is over, when an international organization is established. There must be a provision for a department of public relations in such an organization, so that it may help to create a strong public opinion in favor of it. The League of Nations was not aware of the necessity of the creation of such a public opinion. It is true that there were steps taken to foster intellectual co-operation. But the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation was too academic, it did not reach the people. One reason why the League of Nations and the Kellogg Pact neglected educational and psychological factors, is that both were dominated by a legal mentality. There were too many lawyers dealing with international relations, not enough educators and psychologists.

Nations are not merely legal units. They are made up of human beings. Those who deal with international relations should consequently pay less attention to legal formulas, and more to the relations between peoples; their attitudes and dispositions. The educational and psychological factors in peace are not sideline issues. The problem of peace is nothing less than the problem of living together. This problem has been solved in the United States where different nationalities live together, and on a smaller scale in Switzerland where people of French, German, and Italian language live together. The peoples of the United States and Switzerland are able to do this because they have a national consciousness in spite of differences in background. To solve the problem of living together on a world scale we must develop an international consciousness. That can be done only through a program of international education.

The Growth of Time Concepts

Kopple C. Friedman

THE social studies as subjects are founded to a large extent upon time. Since they are concerned with the study of society and of man's activities through time, success in such study must depend to some degree upon the understanding of time concepts. This is especially true in history. The child is often carried away from the present, away from the here and now, to a world that existed some centuries ago. It is presumed that his experiences and understandings are sufficient to enable him successfully to undertake the study of development and change in society.

To a child, most learning comes through direct experience. As he grows older, and his ability to use language develops, it becomes possible for him to learn about the experience of other individuals and to find out what has gone on in earlier times. Learning about the past, however, involves a vocabulary of time concepts. Such words and phrases, as "ancient," "recent," and "many years ago" are used profusely as indications of time. Some such expressions are specific; "this year" means exactly one thing. Other concepts are indefinite; "a long time ago" may evoke totally different ideas from two persons. A child can be told that Columbus discovered America in 1492. That event can also be described in other ways, such as "a long time ago," "in the medieval period," "four and one-half centuries ago," or "in early times." But the use of such concepts does not imply understanding or mastery of them. Which is most meaningful to children of different ages?

Educational literature has recognized that the pupil's sense of time is weak, but that improvement occurs with age. Instruction in social studies has not aided greatly in the development of time concepts, but if teachers would recognize the basic importance of these concepts and make a

definite effort to promote their development, there is no reason why sound teaching should not result in substantial improvement. It is wasteful and lax to allow growth to develop casually and independently of the school.

To aid in furnishing information on this subject, a study was made of the variety, extent, and importance of time concepts in the life of the average person, both child and adult. This problem was subdivided into the following phases:

1. The growth and extent of the language of time; that is, the words, phrases, and dates by which man describes time.
2. The growth and extent of the historical perspective of the individual, involving his ability to visualize chronological relationships and to place familiar events in a general pattern of time.
3. The growth and extent of the spatial sense of time, or of the capacity to grasp the ideas of intervals elapsing between events.
4. The importance of these time concepts together with their educational implications.

Data were obtained from 1364 pupils in the Minneapolis Public Schools, ranging from kindergarten to grade twelve, and for 194 adults. The subjects were almost evenly divided in sex. The average intelligence quotients for the pupils in all grades fell within the generally accepted limits of normal intelligence. The occupations of the adults and of the parents of the pupils fell in the middle groups of the Minnesota Occupational Scale.

THE VOCABULARY OF TIME CONCEPTS

IN GRADES from kindergarten to three, the children were asked seventeen questions, in personal interviews. Most of these dealt with the understanding of our conventional time system, such as: What day of the week is it?—Is a month longer than a year? It was found that the children had a slight understanding of time when they first entered school. With each succeeding grade, progress was marked. However, evidence from a follow-up with older children revealed that a full understanding of our conventional

This article summarizes a doctoral study recently completed at the University of Minnesota. The author is a teacher of social studies in North High School, Minneapolis.

time system was not achieved until the sixth grade, at the average age of eleven.

The meaning to children of indefinite time phrases was also tested. The subjects were asked to relate something that happened "a long time ago" and something that happened "a short while ago," and then to indicate just when they occurred. The older children displayed more interest than the younger in current news and in history. Success in grasping time concepts was more apparent when the pupil related events that occurred a short while ago, substantiating the principle that a child perceives ideas that are near to him in time and place earlier than those that are remote. Highly inaccurate and indefinite, as well as greatly varying, ideas were displayed, however, for both recent and earlier periods. The second-grade teacher who refers to Columbus as living a long time ago cannot be certain that to pupils his time was any further back, perhaps, than when father was born.

Further objective testing on similar indefinite time phrases, relating to the future as well as the past, was carried out with pupils in grades four to six. As many as 17 per cent of the pupils missed some item by responding with the wrong tense or by omission. Time concepts about the past proved to be better developed than those about the future. This might be natural since the teaching of these young people centers on the past and present, whereas ideas about the future must be built up on the basis of experience.

Results on a test of understanding of time words and dates given to pupils in grades four to twelve and to adults showed greatest gains in grades five and six. By the tenth grade, at the age of sixteen, comprehension of these concepts approached maturity, since scores were equivalent to adult averages. Yet a large percentage still did not know the meaning of a given date. Many could not translate dates into centuries.

In an attempt to establish a good working basis for teaching time concepts, the junior and senior high school pupils were asked objective questions to discover their preferences for learning specific as opposed to approximate dates. Pupil interest has long and often been advocated as a criterion for the selection of methods and content; the test results demonstrate, however, that the preferences indicated are only confusing. No particular type of response was selected consistently.

The place of time concepts in adult everyday living was also studied. The wide variety of

response tends toward the conclusion that people do not pay a great deal of conscious attention to time in their daily lives. While that element is certainly present, adults are not much concerned about it. Those tested did observe that time passes quickly. They were not overly conscious of their age, although the older subjects expressed increasing awareness. They viewed the future with slightly more regard than the present. They did not attach much importance to the past.

GRASP OF TIME RELATIONSHIPS

HISTORICAL perspective was tested by asking pupils to number groups of events in chronological order. The test items draw upon holidays, familiar historical events, and dates. Progress was made in all grades, but the level of comprehension was generally poor. The most difficult items were dates, and especially those before Christ. The greatest gains were made in the fifth and sixth grades, but satisfactory comprehension was found only in the twelfth grade.

The adults were tested on holidays, familiar historical events, dates, and, in addition, recent American and world events. Their scores were poor also. They did not even show satisfactory comprehension of recent events. Evidently world events hold attention only temporarily, for adults were unable to look back into the recent past and place events in correct order. The mature person has experienced aging; he should have better general concepts of the passing of time than a young person, but the ability of most adults to see time relationships between groups of unrelated events or in a succession of related events nevertheless appears to be limited. Their perspective must be more refined concerning their own immediate surroundings than for the great society of which they are members.

Finally, the understanding of the spanning of time, or what might be referred to as the spatial sense of time, was tested by means of two time lines. On one the pupil was to locate specified personal events, and on the other, specified historical events. On the personal time line, results were poor until grade eight. On the historical line, a very poor showing was made throughout. It was again apparent that one of the basic reasons for this was the lack of understanding of the order of dates in the time before Christ.

The relationship of certain factors to the various parts of the time test was studied at different educational levels. Sex differences were negligible in nearly all cases. Differences in the number of

semesters of social studies that twelfth-grade pupils had taken throughout senior high school were found to be statistically insignificant as far as the test scores were concerned. Intelligence quotients did not correlate highly with the test scores, the averages of correlations with different parts of the test varying from .28 to .47. The averages of correlations based upon socio-economic status varied from -.03 to .14.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

THE facts which have been brought out about weakness in comprehension of time concepts and about maturation of understanding at the age of sixteen do not establish the futility of any teaching based upon time before age sixteen. Rather, the findings indicate an area that offers great possibilities for development. History as a subject deals with the past. Its teaching is based upon the use of language. The teacher has the responsibility of determining whether the child comprehends the language used in describing the past. What is a century? What are "medieval times"? What does "1943" mean? What is our system of counting years before and after the birth of Christ? If systematic instruction on time concepts is given in all grades, perhaps maturity of comprehension can be hastened.

The acquisition of these concepts should not be left to chance; fuller understanding of them should result at the same time in enrichment in the outcomes of the social studies. It would be easy for a teacher to put the framework of dates

on the blackboard so that the pupil would be able to grasp a mathematical plan of time. With a dividing line between "B.C." and "A.D.", the years from the birth of Christ to the present could be outlined by centuries and the method of determining centuries explained. The dates before Christ could proceed in the opposite direction to the pupil could see the simple mathematical framework upon which dates are built. In the learning of dates, associating them with events or other circumstances helps put them in their place. Practice with test questions involving chronological order might stimulate the pupil to form an over-all pattern of each assignment or unit and to observe the relationships of individual events therein, instead of studying events as isolated and unique. This would aid in teaching ideas of development, sequence, and relationships.

Finally, as far as the spatial sense of time is concerned, it has been shown that a simple time line can be understood by pupils as early as in the eighth grade. There is some advantage in using this visual aid for showing not only the order of events but duration and time lapse. It, likewise, can be used to develop an historical perspective. The failure to obtain satisfactory results with the more complicated time lines is evidence of the need for teachers to be cautious in the use of such devices. It is preferable that the pupil see how a time line is constructed and help in the process; then he learns the clue to its interpretation and gains chronological perspective.

Thruout modern history, the instrument of education, by which we mean here the schools, colleges, and other organized agencies whose primary function is the inculcation of attitudes or the dissemination of knowledge, has often been used to shape national policies that led to international ill will, aggression, and war. It is the central thesis of this document that this trend should be and can be reversed. We propose nothing less than the systematic and deliberate use of education, on a worldwide basis and plan, to help safeguard the peace and to help extend the democracy for which this Second World War is being fought.

We stress the importance of education because in the past, statesmen who sought to promote the peace of the world have been so exclusively concerned with political organization and strategy, trade and treaties, armament and disarmament, and issues of international law that they have never given serious and sustained attention to the great force of education. Yet this force, rightly organized, could have added powerfully to their efforts. Ignored or wrongly directed, it has brought their shrewdest plans to ruin.

We do not wish to claim too much. Education is a force with which statesmen ought to reckon in planning the international relations of the future. This does not mean, however, that education alone is enough to guarantee the peace and security of nations. *Without parallel and simultaneous political and economic action, international educational policy can hardly be effective* (Educational Policies Commission, *Education and the People's Peace*, p. 9f).

Notes and News

Report on American History

The Report of the Committee on American History in the Schools and Colleges, sponsored by the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and the National Council for the Social Studies, is scheduled for publication by the Macmillan Company in early January. The Report was discussed at a joint session of the American Historical Association and the National Council for the Social Studies at Barnard College, Columbia University, on December 28 by the Director of the Committee, Edgar B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota, and A. T. Volwiler of Ohio University. It has also been the subject of newspaper comment based on releases of some of the Committee's findings.

A test, consisting of 65 multiple-choice items, was administered to groups of high school students, social studies teachers, 107 persons listed in *Who's Who in America*, and selected adults. The items were designed to measure ability to see relationships and make comparisons as well as to recall information; it stressed interpretations, generalizations, and critical abilities. The median score for social studies teachers was 45, with a range from 11 to 62. The median for persons listed in *Who's Who* was 44, with a range from 24 to 61. The median for military students was 29, with a range from 2 to 58. The median for high school students was 22, with a range from 0 to 54. The Committee protests against the use of any arbitrary standard for particular groups, observing that "at any one level much must be taught, less will be learned, and a great deal will subsequently be forgotten."

The Committee finds that American history is not neglected in the schools: that few young Americans can graduate from high school without at least two, more often three, and in many cases four courses in United States history. It is usually required in the intermediate grades, in junior high school, and in senior high school. The Committee also finds that American history teaching is required by law or regulation in forty-four states, but that in the four states without such requirement there is little, if any, difference in the amount taught. The need is not for additional courses in the subject, the Committee

concludes, but for seeing that the courses now offered are effectively taught.

The Report also deals with the recommended content of American history courses, with the social studies teacher, with American history in the colleges, and with public opinion and history teachers.

Long Island

The Long Island Social Studies Teachers Association has resumed its activities after a year during which no meetings were held because of transportation difficulties. In October a dinner meeting was held in Hempstead. At this meeting the following officers were elected: Flora A. Gunnerson, Hempstead High School, president; Mrs. Lillian R. Wanser, Oyster Bay High School, and John Hesse, Freeport High School, vice-presidents; Gertrude Wetterauer, Hicksville High School, secretary; Bernard Braun, East Street School, Hicksville, treasurer. The speakers at this meeting were Dr. and Mrs. Charles H. Stoll of the American Museum of Natural History Alaskan Expedition. Slides taken in the Aleutians were of great interest, as was a collection of clothing, furnishings, and utensils of the Eskimo.

In November a dinner meeting was held in Westbury. Mildred F. McChesney, Supervisor of Social Studies of the State of New York made a report of progress on the new social studies program of New York State. She discussed in detail the six-year sequence from the seventh through the twelfth grades, showing the necessity for an understanding by each teacher of the program as a whole in order that she might best contribute her part in the children's social studies development. It is anticipated that by 1945 the new program will be in use throughout the entire state. A final comprehensive social studies examination will be given at the end of the twelfth grade, replacing the examinations now being used at the end of each grade. Global geography and a sociological approach to our world today are being emphasized. Skills in map reading and in interpretation of mathematical geography, and the ability to interpret and organize information will be especially stressed.

In the spring another dinner meeting will be held. Officers for 1944-45 will be elected. The

tentative program plans for a discussion of the importance of guidance in the social studies field.

New Jersey

Dixon Ryan Fox, president of Union College, was the principal speaker at the November 12 meeting of the New Jersey Association of Teachers of Social Studies in New York City. The Association met in conjunction with the annual meeting of the New Jersey Education Association. Officers were elected for the coming year.

Indiana

The Indiana History Teachers Association met in Indianapolis on December 11. J. Dan Hull spoke on "Our Social Lag," and a panel discussion of the Report of the Committee on American History in the Schools and Colleges was led by Paul Seehausen, a member of the committee which prepared the report. Max P. Allen is president of the Association.

Illinois Council

On October 30 the Executive Board of the Illinois Council for the Social Studies held an open meeting in Bloomington. Representatives of the various local councils of the State presented reports on program and membership. There were also reports from the Curriculum Materials Committee and the State Curriculum Guide Committee for Junior and Senior High School Social Studies. A luncheon meeting, at which President Robert S. Ellwood presided, was concluded with an address by Stephen B. Cory of the University of Chicago on "For Vital Learning Social Studies Students Must Have Material Related to Their Goals." Elementary teachers present met and discussed "Suggested Activities in Elementary-School Social Studies which the Illinois Council Might Sponsor."

Lincoln-Douglas Council

The Lincoln-Douglas Council for the Social Studies (Illinois) is holding four scheduled meetings this school year. To date two meetings have been held: the first on September 30 dealt with the topic of "A Wartime Program for Education"; and the second on December 2 dealt with the topic of "Social Welfare in the British War Effort." The two remaining meetings are planned for February 10 and May 4 at which times the topics will be "Legislation" and "Current Book Reviews," respectively. Good attendance was reported at meetings held so far and a substantial

gain has been effected in membership despite the fact that the Council has lost a number of its members to the various armed services. Officers of the Lincoln-Douglas Council are: Emma E. Parrotte, Springfield, president; Elizabeth Curdie, Springfield, vice-president; and Ruth McKinnie, Springfield, secretary-treasurer.

Iowa

Following a luncheon meeting of the Iowa Council for the Social Studies on November 5, at which Harold McCarty of the University of Iowa spoke on "Geography—Air Power—World Citizenship," Mrs. Clara Strickland, Council Bluffs, was re-elected president; Kathryn Letts, Iowa City, was re-elected chairman of the Executive Committee; and James Sheldon, Des Moines, was elected secretary-treasurer.

Missouri

At its annual business meeting in St. Louis on November 5 the Missouri Council for the Social Studies elected officers for the year, as follows: Caroline E. Hartwig, Columbia, president; Gordon Wesner, Kansas City, vice-president; and Julian C. Aldrich, Maryville, secretary-treasurer.

Pre-Induction Training

In the November issue of *SOCIAL EDUCATION* the article on "Pre-Induction Training in the Social Studies" announced that a forthcoming bulletin on this topic would soon be available from the Pre-Induction Training Branch, Army Service Forces, Washington. Since that article appeared publication plans for the bulletin have been changed. The bulletin has appeared in briefer form in the December issue of *Education for Victory*, published by the U. S. Office of Education. Teachers should write to the Office of Education for this material rather than to the Pre-Induction Training Branch of the Army, as originally stated.

Getting Ready for Induction, by E. E. Lewis of Ohio State University, is a very helpful bulletin for young men 16 to 19 years of age who are preparing to enter the armed forces. This bulletin gives the answers to many questions that high school boys are asking their teachers. Written in question-and-answer form it is equally useful to the teacher and the student. Reprints may be obtained from the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, at the following rates: 1-10 copies, 10 cents per copy; 50 copies, \$2.50; 100 copies, \$4.50.

Post-War World

The United States in a New World, a series of reports on potential courses for democratic action, has been prepared under the auspices of the editors of *Fortune Magazine*. The editors have recently released their fifth report in the series entitled *Our Form of Government*, which consists of five parts as follows: "The Problem," "An Effective Presidency," "Rehabilitation of Congress," "Better Bureaucrats," and "The People." The report is stimulating and provocative, though many readers will no doubt take exception to some parts of it. The other reports in this post-war series are entitled: (1) *Relations with Britain*, (2) *Pacific Relations*, (3) *The Domestic Economy*, (4) *Relations with Europe*, (5) *Our Form of Government*. Teachers will find these reports a useful reservoir of information. They may be obtained in limited quantity on request to the publishers, *Fortune Magazine*, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.

Educational Adjustments to War and Post-War Conditions is the title of a report of the War Issues Committee, Harry Bard, chairman, composed of supervisors and teachers in the public schools of Baltimore, Maryland. This 235-page report is an excellent example of what schools can do in analyzing the work they are doing and bringing about a re-direction of the curriculum through careful democratic planning. Underlying issues were carefully studied and a real effort was made to contribute to the solution of the problems of the war and peace by bringing about changes in the curriculum based on a sound educational philosophy. The report contains concrete suggestions for the entire school system and is highly practical. The interrelationship between the various subject-matter areas in contributing towards a common goal is well worked out. Social studies teachers will find a great deal of the material very pertinent and the bibliographies helpful. The chapters cover such problems as education for the air age, maintaining morale, economic factors in war and peace, the armed forces and civilian mobilization, keeping physically fit, and planning for the peace. Copies of the report may be obtained for \$1 from the Department of Education, Baltimore.

The November issue of the *Journal of Educational Sociology* deals with Social Goals for Post-war Democracy. Eveline M. Burns contributes "Social Security and Our Postwar Economy"; Reinhold Schairer, "Solidarity and Security for the European Teaching Profession"; and Alonzo

F. Myers, "International Education Office."

A Selected Bibliography of Free and Inexpensive Materials on Post-War Problems is an excellent guide that should prove to be extremely helpful to high school teachers of social studies operating with restricted budget. This bibliography was edited by Philmore B. Wass at Plymouth Teachers College, Plymouth, New Hampshire, and mimeographed copies may be obtained for 20 cents by addressing him directly.

The Four Freedoms

Recently two bibliographies on the topic of the Four Freedoms have appeared. *The Four Freedoms and the Atlantic Charter: a Reading List for Young People*, compiled by Dorothy E. Smith, was sponsored jointly by the National Council of Teachers of English, the National Council for the Social Studies, and the American Library Association. It is a carefully selected list, well annotated, and designed for junior high school pupils. It contains references to biographies, stories, and other material which contribute to an understanding of the fundamental principles of the two documents. The texts of the Atlantic Charter and the Four Freedoms are reproduced for convenient reference. The 32-page bibliography is published by the National Council of Teachers of English, 211 West 68th Street, Chicago; 15 cents per copy, 10 cents each in quantities of 10 or more.

A Reading List on the Four Freedoms is the title of the bibliography prepared by Leisa Bronson and Elaine Exton, published by the Woman's Division, Democratic National Committee, Mayflower Hotel, Washington (October, 1943, 48 pages. Single copies free on request). References are well selected and briefly annotated. Material was included that would contribute to an understanding of the significance of the Four Freedoms and their application to war and post-war problems, and to indicate the historical background and thought upon which the concept of the Four Freedoms rests.

Geography

The American Library Association has published an excellent bibliography entitled *The Geography of the War*. The books listed have been competently selected with the idea in mind of presenting some of the better books and pamphlets which reveal the newer geographical concepts. In addition to general background books, there are references arranged topically on strategic materials, life lines, geopolitics, maps, and

the geography of specific regions of the world. Each reference is briefly annotated. Copies of the 8-page list may be obtained from the American Library Association, 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago; single copy, 25 cents; 10 copies, \$1; 25 copies, \$2.

Material on Latin America

A valuable guide to materials on Latin America is *Latin America: A Source Book of Instructional Materials*, by Eleanor G. Delaney, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1943. This booklet is number six in a series called *Practical Suggestions for Teaching*. In its 67 pages it lists textbooks, pictures, and other materials helpful in interpreting Latin America to pupils. It also has a section on "Background Information For Teachers." It costs 60 cents.

Slow Learners

The *Research Bulletin* of the NEA for October is concerned with "High School Methods with Slow Learners." The Introduction deals with the characteristics of mentally backward and retarded pupils, and the identification and appraisal of slow learners. One chapter deals with the organization and administration of school provisions for slow learners; it reports on current school practices and considers ability grouping, teaching personnel, and modified marking systems. Another chapter is devoted to curriculum and instruction provisions in current school practice, and in the fields of English, social studies, and other fields. A page of selected references is appended. The price for a single copy is 25 cents. Address the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington.

High School Student Contest

The League of Nations Association has announced that its annual country-wide examination in public high schools will be held on March 24, 1944. First, second, and third national prizes of \$400, \$100, and \$50 are offered. Several colleges will give scholarships in connection with the national contest, including Carleton College, Smith College, and Radcliffe College. In addition local scholarships and cash awards are offered in some twenty-five states by branches of the Association and co-operating organizations.

The examination will deal with the general problem of organizing the world for peace after the United Nations win the war. Two pamphlets compose the study material—"Toward Greater

Freedom: Problems of War and Peace," published by the Commission to Study the Organization of Peace, and a completely new edition of "Essential Facts in regard to the League of Nations, the World Court and the International Labor Organization," published by the Association. For further details address Mrs. Harrison Thomas, League of Nations Association, 8 West 40th Street, New York.

From the Publications Committee

From the nature of the responses already received about inquiries relative to the publications policies for the National Council, it seems that members are interested in having the Council undertake as part of its program summaries of important research in the field of the social studies. The point has been made that few teachers have direct access to the original research data, and that it would be of service to them to have summaries or abstracts available in convenient form.

There remains the problem of whether or not the Council, if it should undertake such a project, should confine itself either to content material in the social sciences or pedagogical aspects such as teaching methods and curricular problems, or a combination of the two. Also, should such summaries include implications for the classroom teacher, or should the teacher be left free to draw his or her own conclusions?

Another suggestion has been to issue more bulletins containing appropriate test items. New topics suggested have been geography, international relations, and Latin-American relations. Since the Publications Committee is interested in publishing bulletins which will be of maximum practical use to classroom teachers, we are especially interested in specific suggestions of this sort. If more people would send us comments we could better determine the type of publications to undertake.

Send us your ideas and recommendations.

H. T. MORSE, Chairman

Committee on Publications, NCSS
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school or organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Leonard B. Irwin

Current Problems

The Third Freedom: Freedom From Want, edited by Harry W. Laidler (League for Industrial Democracy, 112 East 19th Street, New York. 50 cents), a booklet of 96 pages, is a symposium by thirty contributors representing the so-called progressive or liberal point of view in a wide variety of fields. Among the writers are Arthur Greenwood, leader of the British Labour Party; R. J. Thomas of the United Automobile Workers, CIO; Margaret Bondfield, former British Minister of Labour; Mark Starr, Educational Director of the ILGWU; and other leaders in the fields of labor and social work. While the subject matter of the individual articles is as varied as the list of authors, the general consensus calls for a strong control of social and economic life by government. An increase in social-security benefits, a system of health insurance, government control of industrial plants, a third party to represent the common man, and similar proposals are all discussed in this symposium. Regardless of one's personal leanings, this cannot help but be a thought-provoking pamphlet.

Reference was made last month to the *Cornell University Curriculum Series in World History*. Another pamphlet in this group, and a very timely one, has now come to hand. It is *Canada: Member of the British Commonwealth of Nations and Good Neighbor of the United States*, by Frederick George Marcham (Cornell University Press, Ithaca, New York. 40 cents). Its purpose is "to meet the needs of high school teachers who wish to place an increased emphasis on Canada in courses dealing with American or world history or with international relations." The greater part of the bulletin consists of an "interpretative analysis" or explanation of a series of key questions on Canada's past and present. This textual portion of the booklet is followed by a selected reading list, and very well-prepared lists of questions and pupil activities to aid the teacher in preparing lessons on the subject.

The Library of Congress has recently issued a booklet that will promote racial understanding by emphasizing the contributions of Negro cul-

ture. It is entitled *75 Years of Freedom* (Superintendent of Documents, Washington. \$1.25). The book (for it is more than a pamphlet) is based upon a series of exhibits and concerts which were given in the Library of Congress over two years ago, to commemorate the 75th anniversary of the Thirteenth Amendment. It is the product of the combined efforts of Negroes and whites, and contains excellent articles on the music and graphic arts of the American Negro. Much of the book is devoted to a bibliography of materials dealing with the history of the Negro in slavery and since.

The Races of Mankind, by Ruth Benedict and Gene Weltfish (Public Affairs Committee, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York. 10 cents) is a very readable little booklet for school pupils. Its purpose is to show the meaning of the term "race," and to fight the idea that one race is innately superior to another. The explanations are clear and forceful, and are amusingly illustrated by cartoons.

The ten years before the war saw the decline of many railroads to a position close to bankruptcy, and a sharp drop in the profits of even the greatest. The war has altered this trend abruptly, and it remains to be seen what effect the post-war economy will have. This is the theme of a little pamphlet entitled *The Outlook for the Railroad Industry*, by Ernest W. Williams, Jr. (National Planning Association, 800 Twenty-first Street, N.W., Washington. 25 cents). The discussion is interesting and authoritative. The author believes that the outlook for the industry after the war is reasonably good, if the roads prepare ahead for the readjustments and modernizations that will be required.

Free copies of a new edition of *The Railroad* are available from Lee Lyles, Santa Fe Railway Co., 1404 Railway Exchange Building, Chicago. This illustrated booklet of 34 pages includes a fascinating history of railroading, and descriptions of the many types of work done by the roads. While the illustrative material of course emphasizes the activities of the Santa Fe, the booklet is much more than an advertising brochure. Also available from the same source is a smaller pamphlet, *The Railroad at War*,

which describes in detailed text and with many photographs the railway's part in moving troops and supplies.

The latest issue of the *Headline Series* is *Main-springs of World Politics*, by Brooks Emeny (Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38th Street, New York. 25 cents). Its purpose is to analyze the basic factors upon which modern world politics have turned. It first shows how the concept of national sovereignty and the absence of a super-state authority have made war the necessary final arbiter of international disputes. The analysis of the various pressures which have produced war forms the main content of the booklet. There is an interesting chapter on several types of maps which are necessary to an understanding of world politics, and a good discussion of the influence of geographic factors. Another chapter discusses the importance of economic conditions, and particularly the role that raw materials play in promoting national rivalries. The population factor is shown to have taken an important part in determining national policies. There is also a valuable discussion of the strategic advantages possessed by the warring nations; obviously a country's geographic position in relation to its neighbors has greatly influenced its international actions. The booklet closes with a preview of America's part in the post-war world, and minces no words in declaring that victory in the war will bring us our greatest problems. While this pamphlet is probably too difficult for most high school students, it should be of real value to any teacher of current affairs.

Of interest to teachers who take part in the promotion of bond and stamp sales in their schools is *Schools at War* (The Education Section, War Finance Division, U. S. Treasury Department, Washington. Free), a handbook with many helpful suggestions for conducting stamp campaigns in schools. New editions of the pamphlet are scheduled to appear every two months.

Teachers who include in their social studies courses units on the Far East and Pacific areas will do well to write for a price list of pamphlets on these subjects issued by the American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, 1 East 54th Street, New York. This organization publishes a series of worthwhile textbook pamphlets on each of the Pacific nations.

Post-War Planning

The mass of printed material on post-war planning is fast becoming an avalanche, and tends to leave the average reader somewhat dazed. A welcome guide has appeared—a mimeographed list of 261 books, pamphlets, and articles entitled *Bibliography on Post-war Planning* (Research Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington. 15 cents). Each item receives a brief summary, and the foreword stresses the fact that the references were chosen for their interest and their usefulness in forming part of a well-rounded picture of post-war planning.

A new edition of *Bibliography of Economic and Social Study Material*, issued by the National Association of Manufacturers is now available (National Industrial Information Committee, 14 West 49th Street, New York. Free). This is a descriptive list of the wide variety of pamphlets, posters, and films sponsored by the N.A.M., many of which deal with post-war planning, especially in industrial relations.

It is fairly easy to learn what the articulate part of the population thinks about post-war planning; it is not so easy to understand how the average American feels about it. Yet it is this very portion of the people whose opinions must eventually be won over by any group who hope to carry out a national policy. Any study, therefore, of what the people do think is both interesting and instructive. *Public Thinking on Post-War Problems*, by Jerome S. Bruner, Associate Director of the Office of Public Opinion Research, Princeton University (National Planning Association, 800 Twenty-first Street, N. W., Washington. 25 cents) is the first report on a public-opinion poll conducted jointly by Princeton University and the Rockefeller Foundation. It deals with a series of questions as to the domestic policies of the United States after the war. The report indicates, for instance, that the people believe that soldiers should be given the first choice of jobs after the war; that the government should make personal loans on favorable terms to returned soldiers; that a soldier with a steady job should not receive a bonus; and that the great bulk of people favor social security in its various forms.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Motion Picture News

The new edition of *1000 and One, The Blue Book of Non-Theatrical Films*, as usual, is an efficient and effective guide to school films. For nineteen years the editors of *Educational Screen* magazine have been publishing this handbook and from the first it has been one of the best general sources of information concerning the available films and their distributors. The films are classified into 176 subject groups properly cross-indexed according to titles. Over 500 subjects are included in the section devoted to war films. A copy of this guide should be available to every teacher who is faced with the task of locating desirable films. Copies are 75 cents each; Educational Screen, 64 East Lake Street, Chicago.

American Forest Products Industries, Inc., 1319 Eighteenth Street, N. W., Washington, will send free to interested teachers a "Bibliography of Literature and Visual Aids For the Study of Forest Resources and Their Conservation."

Youth in Crisis, the "March of Time" film now playing neighborhood theaters, is well worth seeing. It tells the story of what is happening to our young people because of the disruptions and excitement of war. Hard-hitting, and at times verging on the hysterical, this film treats realistically one of the most pressing of the present problems of democracy.

Social studies teachers can not afford to miss the interpretation of the Russian people presented in *The North Star*. Superbly cast, this picture is a saga of the people who vow "I will not lay down arms until the last Fascist is driven from our land." Like *Mission to Moscow*, this film tends to whitewash certain aspects of Russian life, but it is still good enough to deserve *Life* magazine's rating as "movie of the year."

Recent 16-mm. Releases

Castle Films Inc., RCA Building, New York.

News Parade of 1943. 1 reel, sound or silent; sale, sound \$17.50, silent \$8.75. A review of the year's news.

Educational Film Library Association, 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.

Battle for Oil. 2 reels, sound; rental, \$2.00. Story of the oil resources of the United Nations.

Food—Weapon of Conquest. 2 reels, sound; rental, \$2.50. Story of Allied and Axis war food strategy.

New Earth. 2½ reels, sound; rental, \$3.00. A documentary-film record of Holland's Zuyder Zee project.

World of Plenty. 4½ reels, sound; rental, \$3.00. The story of men and food—past, present, and future.

Walter O. Gutlohn Inc., 25 West 45th Street, New York.

Story of the Vatican. 6 reels, sound; rental, apply. The March of Time's picturization of Vatican City.

Informational Films Division, Eastman Kodak Co., 343 State Street, Rochester.

Eighteenth Century Life in Williamsburg, Virginia. 4 reels, sound, kodachrome; free for single showings. A day in the life of the capital of colonial Virginia. Reels 1 and 2, "Home Life"; Reel 3, "Eighteenth Century Cabinet Making"; Reel 4, "Community Life."

Office of Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, 444 Madison Avenue, New York.

Grain That Built a Hemisphere. 1 reel, sound, color; rental, apply. A Walt Disney cartoon which tells the story of corn and its part in building Western civilization.

Office of War Information. (Distributed by Walter O. Gutlohn Inc., 25 West 45th Street, New York; Castle Films Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York; Modern Talking Picture Service Inc., 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.) Note: The following Army and Navy morale films have now been made available to schools. Rental is \$1.00 each for all subjects up to 3 reels.

All American. 3 reels, sound.

Arm Behind the Army. 1 reel, sound.

Combat Report. 1 reel, sound.

Attack Signal. 2 reels, sound.

Battle of Midway. 1 reel, sound.

War on Wheels. 2 reels, sound.

Prelude to War. 5 reels, sound (apply for rental price).

Divide and Conquer. 5 reels, sound (apply for rental price).

Mary Smith, American. 1 reel, sound.

This Is Guadalcanal. 2 reels, sound.

The Life and Death of the U.S.S. Hornet. 2 reels, sound.

Princeton Film Center, Princeton, N.J.

How to Read a Map. 1 reel, silent; rental, apply. How to interpret symbols on maps and how to make the map a reference tool.

Film Strips

"Conquest! The Story of the Santa Fe and the Men Who Built It" is a sound-slide film which may be borrowed from J. L. Lyles, Assistant to the President, Santa Fe Railway, Chicago. The film treats the history of railroad transportation as typified in this road. Picture booklets showing

each scene treated in the slide are available free upon request.

Elementary schools interested in vitalizing the War Saving Stamp program in their school should get a copy of the filmstrip, "The Story of Billy Dollar," from the Education Section, War Finance Division, Treasury Department, Washington. This filmstrip, consisting of 30 cleverly drawn cartoons showing the work which our dollars can do in the war effort, may be had free of charge. With the filmstrip comes a printed leaflet with dialog which may be read by teacher and pupils as the film is being shown.

Radio Notes

The Federal Radio Education Committee and the U. S. Office of Education have inaugurated a monthly Education Program Listing Service to keep teachers informed concerning worthwhile programs. At the present time the lists are being sent to State departments of education with the recommendation that they be used as the basis for preparing State and local lists which also include local and regional educational radio programs. The first list issued included twenty-seven network programs, of which the following are of special interest to social studies teachers: Invitation to Learning, Weekly War Journal, Reviewing Stand, Transatlantic Call, People to People, University of Chicago Roundtable, Lands of the Free, The American School of the Air, The Sea Hound, Science at Work, Cavalcade of America, Prelude to Victory, This Nation at War, This Is Our Enemy, America's Town Meeting of the Air, March of Time, People's Platform, For This We Fight.

Maps

Facts and figures from the 1940 census returns are graphically portrayed in the Population Density Map of the United States issued by the Bureau of the Census. The map comes in two sections on a scale of approximately 40 miles to the inch. The population per square mile in 1940 is shown according to county political subdivisions grouped into nine density bands. The names and boundaries of the counties appear upon the map. Copies of the map may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, at 40 cents a copy.

A *Global Atlas of the World at War* containing 32 colored maps, a chronology of World War II, and facts about the nations of the world today is published by World Publishing Co., 2231 West 110th Street, Cleveland; 48 pages, 25 cents.

Another inexpensive atlas is the *War Geography Atlas* sold by the American Education Press, 400 South Front Street, Columbus. This 48-page atlas contains 29 maps and sells for 15 cents.

Pictures

Primary-grade teachers will be enthusiastic about the Indian picture material obtainable from George R. Momyer, 620 West Cotton Avenue, Redlands, California. Among the materials available are: twenty-four 9 x 12-inch Indian pictures in color at \$1.00 per set, and a 12-foot panel Indian picture poster at 50 cents. An illustrated catalog may be obtained for 10 cents.

A colored chart, 22 x 28 inches in size, on United States nutrition is available free from your regional office of the Food Distribution Administration. Southern Regional Office, Western Union Building, Atlanta, Georgia; Great Lakes Regional Office, 5 Wabash Avenue, Chicago; Southwest Regional Office, 425 Wilson Building, Dallas, Texas; Rocky Mountain Regional Office, 1536 Welton Street, Denver; Midwest Regional Office, Old Colony Building, Des Moines, Iowa; Northeast Regional Office, 150 Broadway, New York; Pacific Regional Office, 821 Market Street, San Francisco.

Helpful Articles

- "Approaches to Tokyo," *Fortune* XXVIII:121-135, 230, December, 1943. Two articles and portfolio of maps on the impending battle of the Pacific. The full double-page-spread maps show the approaches to Tokyo from Alaska, from the Solomons, and from Burma.
- Forsyth, Elaine. "Map Reading, Lessons II and III," *Journal of Geography*, XLII:287-297, November, 1943. How to teach latitude, longitude, and great circles. Well illustrated with practical devices.
- Howe, Quincy. "Policing the Commentator: a News Analysis," *Atlantic*, CLXXII:46-49, November, 1943. A good, brief treatment of the amount of freedom the commentator has and should have on the air.
- Hunt, Maurice P. "Visual and Other Aids," *The Social Studies*, XXXIV:321-322, November, 1943. A discussion of the advantages of a special projection room for film showings in high schools.
- Kroll, Francis I. "The Missing Constitution," *The Grade Teacher*, LXI:38, 72, November, 1943. A play on the Constitution suitable for the intermediate grades.
- National Geographic Magazine*. LXXXIV, December, 1943. The December issue of the *Geographic* includes a new map of the world, 40 x 25 inches, in ten colors. It's well worth seeing. An excellent article on "Weather Fights and Works for Man" by F. Barrows Colton will be welcomed for its rich information and clear illustrations. A series of sixteen paintings by Thornton Oakley on "American Transportation Vital to Victory" is good classroom material. Outstanding is Leo O. Borah's article on "Home Folk Around Cumberland Gap." It opens up a field of American history about which too little is known.

Book Reviews

THE ORIGINS AND BACKGROUND OF THE SECOND WORLD WAR. By C. Grove Haines and Ross J. S. Hoffman. New York: Oxford University Press, 1943. Pp. 659. \$4.25 (College ed. \$3.25).

This book, which is suitable not only for college students but also for the general reader, is primarily an account of those events in world history during the past thirty years which may be regarded as having had a tendency to bring about the present war and our entrance into it. The relationship among the events is developed with exceptional skill, so that the narrative moves with the logic of a good drama. There are interwoven in the narrative excellent, though possibly too brief, analyses of the movements which largely determined the course of events. Thus the characteristics of fascism under the leadership of Mussolini are shown to account for the subsequent "transformation of the heir to Rome and the risorgimento into the traitor who opened the Alpine passes to the barbarians." Again, the book makes clear the fact that some of the principal ideas and aims generally associated with Nazism were cherished by "moderate" leaders of the Weimar Republic such as Von Stresemann. In this connection it is to be regretted that no account is given of the influence of the officer caste in the origins of Nazism.

All of these movements, according to the authors of this book, were dominated by a conflict between "a world striving for centuries to come to unity on principles rooted in reason and ripe human experience, and another world—in a very real sense, the underworld—of paganism, ignorance of human nature, and anarchic impulses to defeat the world's good cause." The cause of the "underworld" was promoted by the operation in all countries of certain general factors, among which is included "the transformation of liberalism" chiefly as a result of the tendency towards "utopian socialism" and the latter-day "revolt against traditional religion and morality." Thus there is presented a general theory of the causes of the international crises preceding the present war and of the war itself.

This theory forms the basis for certain interesting criticisms of the foreign policy of the several governments whose weakness in resisting the aggressor powers made possible, if it did not stimulate, the revolt of those powers against world

order. Thus the government which is represented to have stood most firmly against the destructive tendencies, at least until about 1935, was that of France.

It is Great Britain which is held primarily responsible for the fatal course adopted by the two powers during the appeasement era. Hardly less severe is the judgement pronounced upon the record of our own government. The Hoover administration is accused of having had a large share in the responsibility for the deepening of the world crisis during the depression period. The United States even more than Great Britain is blamed for the failure to check Japan during the critical events of 1931 and 1932. The blunders of our policy during the Roosevelt Administration are also clearly set forth, though they are attributed in large part to the state of public opinion at the time. In connection with the discussion of this phase of the subject, there is an excellent analysis of the isolationist-interventionist controversy, embellished with choice extracts from the speeches of Lindbergh, Wheeler, Hoover, and others.

The book is written with unusual force and felicity of phrase. It is furnished with excellent bibliographies, good maps, and a comprehensive index.

F. R. FLOURNOY

The College of Emporia

FRENCH INTERESTS AND POLICIES IN THE FAR EAST.

By Roger Levy, Guy Lacam, and Andrew Roth. New York: Institute of Pacific Relations (Inquiry Series), 1941. Pp. 202. \$2.00.

At a time when the solution of the colonial problem looms large in plans for post-war reconstruction, this is a welcome book. One of an Inquiry Series projected by the *Institute of Pacific Relations*, it affords condensed material, both factual and interpretive, concerning an important colonial area about which recent, accurate information is difficult to procure due to the nearness of events recorded therein.

Part I, "A Century of French Far Eastern Affairs," describes with broad strokes the cultural, economic, and political interests of France in China, Japan, Southeast Asia, and the South Pacific islands, which, except in Indo-China, prove

to be surprisingly unimportant. This section forms a general, although inadequate and uncoordinated historical background to Part II, "French Indo-China in Transition." Here the treatment concentrates on the most important area of French interests and gains in depth what Part I loses in breadth. Beginning with the Munich Pact, 1938, it brings the story down to March, 1941, when the Thailand-Franco treaty reduced Indo-China to a virtual dependency of Japan.

Quite different in character is the Supplement to Part I, "The Economic Relations of Indo-China to Southern China" which forms a separate section, designed to supply detailed data, mainly statistical, upon one aspect of Indo-China's economy. Written by a French imperialist and financier, it is an abridgement of a fuller *Report*, prepared for the Institute of Pacific Relations, and shows that the economic relations between Indo-China and Southern China have always been insignificant.

Parts I and II, therefore, form the most useful sections of the book to obtain an overview of France's erstwhile colonial empire in the Far East. The value of Part I, however, is considerably marred by the national bias of the author, a strong French imperialist. Also, his conclusions regarding Indo-China's future, written in 1938, are now, in the light of subsequent events, outdated and irrelevant. No doubt, Mr. Levy's bias explains his complete omission of any reference to native nationalistic ambitions and movements, although it is generally known that French colonial rule met with considerable resistance, especially in Indo-China. His very omissions and emphases render this section, however, an excellent and true account of the old imperialism.

Part II remains, therefore, the best part of the book: its author writes objectively with no national prejudice; he takes some account of the natives, although his province is mainly external, not internal, affairs; and, above all, he places the difficulties of Indo-China in a world perspective by relating them to international political events. The chief value of his contribution lies in the careful account of French policy challenged by the threat of Japanese aggression: its dilemmas; its appeasement of Japan by curtailing aid to China; its desperation against the Japanese machinations in Thailand and Japanese pressure after France's fall in Europe; Vichy's attempt to gain time by appealing for aid to the United States and to Germany, and the final humiliating surrender of Indo-China to Japan. Here we have

in a microcosm, in this small part of the world, the universal story of fear, indecision, bewilderment, and collapse before totalitarian aggression which characterised the years 1938-1941. Part II, supplemented by Part I, affords a clear and excellent introduction to events now transpiring in Southeastern Asia.

MARY E. TOWNSEND

Columbia University

AMERICAN POLITICAL AND SOCIAL HISTORY. By Harold Underwood Faulkner. New York: Crofts, 1943. 3rd edition. Pp. xvi, 814. \$3.85.

The first edition of this excellent college textbook was published in 1937, before the war began in Europe. The second (1941), written before the United States was at war, added a chapter bringing the narrative through the election of 1940 and the parts covering the period after 1920 were revised and partially rewritten. The third, aside from another chapter of a dozen pages on events of Roosevelt's third term to January, 1943, is like the second except for "minor corrections and additions" (p. vi). Since so little of it is new, it hardly seems necessary to cover the ground of previous reviews.

Perhaps the most useful thing the reviewer can do is to assume the ungracious task of pointing out some minor errors and questionable statements that have survived revisions. The chief advantage of the flat-bottomed river steamer designed by Captain Shreeve was shallow draft rather than "minimum water displacement" (p. 251). Liberalization of suffrage in the states, attributed to Jeffersonian democracy (pp. 282, 295), is usually credited to Jacksonian democracy. A sentence on page 339: "As far as Congress could do it, the North from that time never lacked resources for the struggle," needs reconstruction. If the *Monitor* had had "a hull level with the water" (same page) she would have been even more peculiar than she was. The Battle of Missionary Ridge was not fought above the clouds (p. 344). The Greenbacks were a form of borrowing rather than a tax (p. 355). It is questionable whether Theodore Roosevelt "forced the Dominican government to sign a treaty in 1905" (p. 538) in view of the fact that his intervention was at the request of that government. The direct primary had its origins in Wisconsin rather than in Oregon (p. 589). The chairman of the NLRB was J. Warren Madden, not Joseph M. Madden (p. 719).

A good index is a very useful aid both to

teachers and to any students who can be induced to use it. It is disappointing to find so perfunctory an index in this volume. A few casual attempts to use it have disclosed that the principal discussion of the Ordinance of 1787 (p. 118) is not indexed; that Gallatin's report of 1808 on Internal improvements (p. 246) has no reference under "Gallatin," "Transportation," or "Canals," and that there are no entries for "Internal Improvements" or "Roads"—and none for "Suffrage," "Franchise," or "Voting." The new chapter has not been included.

DONALD L. McMURRY

Russell Sage College

LATIN AMERICA AND HEMISPHERE SOLIDARITY. By James E. Downes, Nathaniel H. Singer, and Donald Becker. Boston: Heath, 1943. Pp. vi, 237. \$1.40.

Not a history, not a survey of contemporary life, and not a travelog, although it has something of all three, this book for high schools "locates" Latin America geographically, economically, politically, and, to some extent, culturally.

Three principal reasons are developed for our current wooing of the Latin Americans: (1) awareness, as in the days of President Monroe, that Europeans might use the region as a base from which to throttle or even to attack us, (2) realization that the Monroe Doctrine will work better as a hemispheric than as a unilateral policy, and (3) appreciation that mutual co-operation and help will always be best for all concerned.

About one half of the text is devoted to the geography and peoples of the Latin Americas. Through reiteration and description it is borne home that the peoples of the Americas are a heterogeneous lot. But, rather than stewing over the differences as insuperable impediments to hemispheric solidarity, the authors proceed to demonstrate that they are, after all, only *acquired differences*. When we learn about the other Americans, and they about us, we find that, as human beings, we all are trying to achieve about the same things.

In the second half of the book, hemispheric solidarity is simply defined as "One for all and all for one" applied to relations within the hemisphere. The economics of solidarity, as revealed in graphs, charts, and tables, "calls for more than political and cultural good will on the part of the United States," because "*The currents of*

commerce, in a world that is economically interdependent, draw Latin Americans to Europe, regardless of the political desires of the United States." In this connection it is made manifest that products of the Caribbean area complement those of the United States, while the exports of southern South America are competitive with ours. This is said to account, in part, for the alleged waywardness of Chile and Argentina in the current imbroglio.

On the political side, hemispheric solidarity is shown to consist in building around both the Monroe Doctrine as a multilateral policy and around the activities of the Pan American Union. The three final chapters deal with Axis activities in the Latin Americas, with hemispheric defense, and with the possibilities and the necessities of the future.

Although it could easily be expanded into a full course, the authors—two high school social studies teachers and a journalist—have intended their book to constitute a unit of study. Furthermore, as the title indicates, they have intended to write principally about relations among the Americas, only incidentally about the Americas themselves. The result is the first publication on the high school level which actually has indoctrination of the Pan-American idea as a primary rather than a secondary purpose. No student will emerge from a study of this book with a great store of information about Latin America, but he will know a good deal about inter-American relations.

The vocabulary is well adjusted to its intended readers and there is explanation either in the text or in the glossary of technical and Latin-American terms. The bibliography is in the form of "Suggestions for a Minimum Library." Each chapter is equipped with questions, largely of a review nature, and with suggestions for "Things to Do." The writing is good. It is not witty or clever, but highly readable and clear. Illustrations, photographic and otherwise, are plentiful and usually to the point. Non-glare paper, good type face, and a stronger than average binding combine with the content to make this a highly commendable publication for use in any high school course involving study of inter-American relations.

WAYNE ALVORD

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF AMERICA

11th or 12th grade

FREMONT P. WIRTH—Professor of Teaching of History and Chairman of Division of Social Studies, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee

BUSINESS AS A SYSTEM OF POWER. By Robert A. Brady. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943. Pp. xxi, 340. \$3.00.

"People of the same trade seldom meet together, even for merriment and diversion, but the conversation ends in a conspiracy against the public, or in some contrivance to raise prices" (p. 225). So Robert A. Brady quotes Adam Smith, detaching a sentence which might be a text for the book in hand. One does not read far before discovering that the author has ransacked a voluminous, scattered, and sometimes obscure literature in order to answer the questions: Are there conspiracies? What are their purposes? Their methods? What is their reach? These answers come to focus on a question of immense import to which events alone can make answer. Robert S. Lynd poses it thus in the Foreword: "Will democratic political power absorb and use economic resources, bigness and all, to serve its ends, or will big economic power take over state power?" (p. xiii). In three European countries where democratic ideas had some roots, namely, Italy, France, and Germany, the answer has been given. How fare Great Britain and the United States?

Are there conspiracies (not necessarily involving illegal acts)? Yes. They are to be found in each country studied: Japan, Germany, Italy, France, Great Britain, and the United States. Emerging from the first pages is this fact: Business centralization in all these countries is astonishingly similar in structure as well as in aims, and in all of them it has encountered similar oppositions. To each country the author devotes a chapter, and therein describes, with ample documentation, their business mammoths (no implication of extinction!) and the company they keep.

What are their purposes? The answer is on the cover: Power. Power over economic controls, power over the public mind, and finally power to manipulate all-important political organization—these make the tripod upon which the business hierarchy hopes to support and perpetuate its despotism.

What are the methods? First appear all the well-worn devices for centering economic control. On top of these, however, comes a relatively new kind of organization which overshadows the first. In Germany it is the National Industry Group; in Italy, the General Confederation of Italian

Industry; in Japan, the Japanese League of Economic Organization; in France, the *Confédération Générale du Patronat Français*; in Great Britain, the Federation of British Industries; and in the United States, the National Association of Manufacturers.

An integral part of the methods of these federations in the areas which they dominate falls under the euphemistic heading Public-Relations. About this teachers must not be naive if they are to serve a developing democracy. The aims are to dissolve antagonism and to win adult and youth alike. At the least they hope for a tolerant support of their program; at the most they covet a blind loyalty. In 1937 the NAM spent \$36,000,000 (estimate) on public relations, a sum which the author thinks has been doubled. It is important to add that since this book was published this "educational" effort has been reinforced by a "tax-supported" deluge of institutional advertising.

Under the heading of method one more point deserves mention. This may be adequately suggested by a quotation. The federations aim at "The militarization of employer-employee relations. . . . A corollary is the militarization of legislative (substitution of the 'edict' for statute law) and judicial (through the procedures of martial law) powers, with the consequent disappearance of the line between civil and military, the discipline of war and peace" (p. 317).

Let's turn to the last of our initial battery of questions: What is their reach? Names help us very little. Cartel, trust, association, federation—such names give no certain clue to the kinds and limits of controls. In general they seem to reach vertically through each large industry and horizontally over all-important productive machinery. But their reach is not confined to political frontiers; the tendency is rather to become "global."

The main thesis here presented will not be new to any informed student of our civilization; but the data as here correlated is new, weighty, and disturbing. One does not have to accept all of the author's implications; yet one must face a world in which totalitarian business (even in the United States and Great Britain) is rushing toward despotism.

This book, along with some others recently off the press, should increase our unwillingness any longer to approve the divorce of economics from politics. We had best hasten to put together what belong together.

To many this book will be tedious reading;

nevertheless, all teachers and advanced students in college who want to know how and to what purpose the mills of modern society grind should at least read the beginning and the end. Diagrams would help to simplify some of the explanations. The book could have been slightly condensed to advantage, for it assuredly deserves a wider reading public than it will probably get.

E. LEWIS B. CURTIS

State Teachers College
Oneonta, New York

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS IN THE UNITED STATES.

By Harold Zink. New York: Macmillan, 1942.
Pp. xiii, 1091. \$4.00.

Although this basic text for college students in American Government follows the conventional pattern of organization, it nevertheless has considerable merit, due to its constant emphasis on the functioning of the officials and the institutions which constitute our government. Less attention than usual is given to the historical development of our institutions. In fact, Professor Zink pays secondary-school teachers of social studies a compliment in observing that their students are increasingly bringing to college a rather detailed knowledge of the political and institutional history of their country. He has, therefore, felt justified in devoting the major part of the book to the actual operation of our government.

Approximately two-thirds of the content is given to the national government. State government is covered rather fully, but the treatment of the lesser units tapers off quite noticeably. The author's conviction seems to be that the citizen of today needs to concentrate on the problems of increasing our national competence in such matters as foreign relations, administrative services, personnel, the meaning of citizenship, and public opinion.

In describing the operation of the various units of government, Professor Zink uses a wealth of illustration. He pulls no punches in assessing controversial issues, yet the reader comes away with an appreciation of the fundamental balance of treatment. Perhaps the outstanding fact about the book is that it is interesting to read even though lengthy and well documented.

Appropriate illustrations are included in moderate quantity, and an index of essential items is appended. One wonders if the inclusion of some thought-provoking questions at the ends of

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the chapters might not have been worth the trouble involved.

J. W. GANNAWAY, JR.

New Trier High School
Winnetka, Illinois

OUR DEMOCRACY AND ITS PROBLEMS. By L. J. O'Rourke. Boston: Heath, 1942. Pp. xxi, 711. \$1.88.

This volume on the problems of the American democracy is another attack upon the many unsolved questions which have developed in our political, economic, and social organization. The author, a director of research in personnel administration for the United States Civil Service Commission, has a deep social consciousness which influences his analysis of each problem. This social viewpoint, which is in keeping with the present period, makes the volume valuable as a reference work or as a text. Classes in Problems of Democracy, civics, economics, or sociology might find much useful information in the text. The book is primarily valuable at the senior high level.

In selecting the material to be included, the author has used only that which he believed would give students definite training in attacking and developing solutions to given problems. In order to create the necessary background, the first section deals exclusively with the basic elements and institutions of our American culture. This section is especially good for students seeking a composite picture of the American culture pattern. The second and third divisions analyze the vital economic and social problems of the present period, including some of the questions which emanate from periods of war and reconstruction. The timeliness of this section is evident. Parts four and five consider the political organization of the United States and its place in world affairs. The last section, on the problems of the individual as he makes his adjustment to the life of this day, is well done and should carry a wide appeal for classes in vocational information as well as in the social studies. To those who question the inclusion of this section it may be noted that the author emphasizes the significance of the individual as a vital element in a democracy.

The activities suggested, while confined mainly

to discussion and reading, may be readily augmented by an alert instructor. Animated maps and graphs from various sources bring information up to date and give some training in analyzing visual material. The bibliography, while suggestive, might be much more detailed and inclusive. Relatively few pamphlet references have been listed, and no mention has been made of the many agencies from which valuable material may be secured. In presenting a comprehensive view such as this, it is always difficult to treat all topics adequately and the sections on civilian defense and government finance seem to have suffered somewhat.

The book is, on the whole, a comprehensive survey of the American problems field and shows skillful weaving of economic and social factors.

MILDRED P. ELLIS

High School
Framingham, Massachusetts

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YOUR COUNTRY AND MINE. By Grace A. Turkington and Phil Conley. Boston: Ginn, 1943. Pp. x, 583. Appendixes. \$1.60.

It is a refreshing experience to examine a junior high school textbook like *Your Country and Mine*. Here is a book that combines directed learning with reading pleasure, and that defies those who would teach social studies as a collection of isolated facts meted out in a series of page-by-page assignments. Offered as a text in democratic citizenship, this book is notable for its thorough and careful development of well-selected concepts. The meaning of "love of country," for example, is illustrated by a variety of devices, including a number of anecdotes from the current political scene and from everyday experiences of youth. Similarly the story of the Charter Oak is but one of the many incidents used to illustrate the role played by state papers in representing the authority of a government. European backgrounds are employed frequently to explain the economic basis of change in modern democracy, and clarifying discussions are sure to result from such sentences as "Columbus started out as a commercial traveler; not as a discoverer" (p. 89).

But the authors have not been content to stop with the development of understandings. In addition and without preaching they have tried to develop from those understandings significant attitudes of democratic citizenship. The chapter called "America, a Nation Made by Hard Work" is a case in point. Here, by recounting rather

casually incidents and bits of biography from our national history, the authors point out that personal idleness is not typically American, and therefore, by implication, has no place in the life of American youth today. Nor is the student allowed to forget that other nations are also working with problems of democracy today; the whole volume presents the struggle for democracy as a struggle of humanity rather than one of national states.

Style of writing, selection of content, and organization all contribute to this book's usefulness. Mere examination of the Table of Contents does not begin to reveal the interesting range of topics to be found under some of the commonplace titles. To illustrate, the chapter called "How We Get Together" describes not only places of neighborliness, like coffee houses of England and doorways of France, but also evaluates the family as a group for economic sharing and the gang as an undesirable type of association. Of the twenty-five chapters—arranged in seven groups—only one, "The Machinery of Government," becomes a mere outline; all others are so written as to be thought-provoking in themselves and yet occupy an integral place in the volume. The authors call attention to this unity among their chapters by suggesting frequently in their study activities that the student reread a previous chapter in light of the concept just then developed.

Other study activities vary greatly in value and practicality. Pictorial aids while not numerous are well selected, and a useful set of appendixes includes reading lists for teacher and pupils, words of some national songs, and a well-annotated copy of the Constitution.

KENNETH B. THURSTON

University School
Indiana University

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EDUCATION FOR CITIZEN RESPONSIBILITIES—THE ROLES OF ANTHROPOLOGY, ECONOMICS, GEOGRAPHY, HISTORY, PHILOSOPHY, POLITICAL SCIENCE, PSYCHOLOGY, SOCIOLOGY. Edited by Franklin L. Burdette. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1942. Pp. xiii, 126. \$1.50.

From many quarters today we hear a gush of nonsense about the need for more instruction in science and mathematics at almost all levels above the kindergarten, and for less instruction in the social studies. Yet now as never before we see the tragic chasm between a material world created by applied science and a social-political

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world created by unapplied social science. The philosophy and technique of education for citizenship in this new material world are in swaddling clothes. The present volume, even though it has substantial merits, confirms this contention.

The chief merits will be found in the papers by Professors W. D. Wallis (anthropology), W. E. Hocking (philosophy), L. A. Cook and S. A. Queen (sociology), F. A. Ogg (political science), F. D. Graham (economics), and Griffith Taylor (geography). These will challenge teachers at all levels. Let the authors speak:

"Our immediate objective should be a world at peace. This can be attained only by studying world problems, especially those involving other nations and cultures" (Taylor, p. 60).

"Cultures are so interdependent, and so intertwined, that injury to one injures others. . . . To know others is to know ourselves, for those others are, to a considerable extent, a reflection of ourselves. As physically mankind is bone of our bone, flesh of our flesh, so spiritually, that is to say in all phases of culture, we are one with all mankind" (Wallis, p. 10).

Several contributors, notably Hocking and Graham, urge that learning in their fields be

initiated at lower levels. Graham contends that certain basic principles in economics be taught in the elementary school, a task for which most of our present elementary teachers have been left quite unprepared. Nor can they easily become prepared. Neither textbooks nor collegiate courses in economics are designed to meet this need. The Eleventh Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies is one of the few good tools at hand for breaking ground.

The chapters in this book were all papers read at a national conference on Education for Citizen Responsibilities; nevertheless that is about all that seems to draw them together. For the lack of a centering purpose, these essays have scarcely more unity than that provided by the book binder. The fault is serious, for its roots penetrate to the disparate courses in the social studies at the secondary and college level. Hocking needs to insist upon the role of philosophy in bringing a felt unity of purpose to the social studies. The reader will look in vain through these essays for a clear answer to the question: What are a citizen's responsibilities? We urgently need an answer in precise terms; for, "War or no war, the social sciences are called upon to promote an intellectual rearmament, a new and

increased concern for a better, stronger, democratic social order" (Cook and Queen, p. 105).

E. LEWIS B. CURTIS

State Teachers College
Oneonta, New York

CRIMINOLOGY: AN ATTEMPT AT A SYNTHETIC INTERPRETATION WITH A CULTURAL EMPHASIS. By Donald R. Taft. New York: Macmillan, 1942. Pp. xii, 708. \$4.50.

Donald R. Taft, professor of sociology at the University of Illinois, has divided his well-organized latest book into five parts. Part I, or "Introductory," deals with the definition of crime and tells how some disapproved acts have been classified as criminal, while others, although against society, are accepted though frowned upon. Professor Taft, like most others interested in criminology, bemoans the unreliability of criminal statistics. His history of criminological thought and the development of our modern approaches and methods are very concise and would make excellent reference material, if detail is not a requisite. In Part II, or "The Explanation of Crime," he shows that heredity, environment, personality differences, physical handicaps, or racial differences do not in themselves cause crime, but each may have its effect in degrees. In other words, there is no criminal type, although many causes may be traced to some cultural conflict in our society.

Professor Taft gives a brief history and philosophy of various means of punishment in the third section of his book, "The Treatment of the Adult Criminal." He discusses such subjects as criminal law, police systems, criminal investigations, courts, penal institutions, and parole, giving a brief history, evaluation, and constructive suggestions for improvement. The treatment of the youthful offender, the history of the juvenile court and parole systems, and descriptions of various kinds of penology are given in the first section of Part IV, "The Treatment of the Juvenile Delinquent and Crime Prevention." In discussing crime prevention, he starts with the pre-delinquent and shows the effects that the home, school, and neighborhood may have in character education.

Part V is one short chapter devoted entirely to "The Criminal Nation." This chapter, no doubt, was added solely because of the trying times we are going through.

As stated earlier, the book lacks the detail given in other books, but is much more interestingly written than most, especially as far as the

student of the secondary level is concerned, and it probably contains most of the necessary materials needed in a school reference book on criminology.

PAUL R. BUSEY

Bloom Township High School
Chicago Heights, Illinois

CORRECTION: The Houghton Mifflin Company, publisher of *Calling All Citizens*, by Robert Rienow, which was reviewed in the November issue of this journal, informs us that the book is intended for the junior high school rather than for the twelfth grade, as implied in the reviewer's comment that the treatment is oversimplified for the latter level. EDITOR.

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